PAKISTAN YEAR BOOK 1969

NATIONAL PUBLISHING HOUSE LIMITED

PAKISTAN
YEAR-BOOK
1969

خانوادہ سہگل

THE HOUSE OF SAIGOLS

"It gives me great pleasure .... to acknowledge the vision & enterprise of the Saigol Group .... I congratulate you on your tremendous initiative and spirit of enterprise and wish you all success in your endeavours."

President of Pakistan
Inaugural Speech : 18th Feb. 1967

Our modest story is a chronicle of faith & trials and success. We saw a vision and ventured to give it a shape—vital and concrete.

But, that, also is not our strongest point.

Some people give us credit for the size of our projects. They point out that in one Project alone

We poured 15 lac cubic feet of concrete.
We installed 10,000 tons of machinery in 36 Plant sections.
We positioned 20 miles of pipe lines.
We laid 11 miles of Cables.
We completed 15 miles of Insulation.
Others remind us that we pioneered Textiles.

That our Textile Mills are the largest in the country.

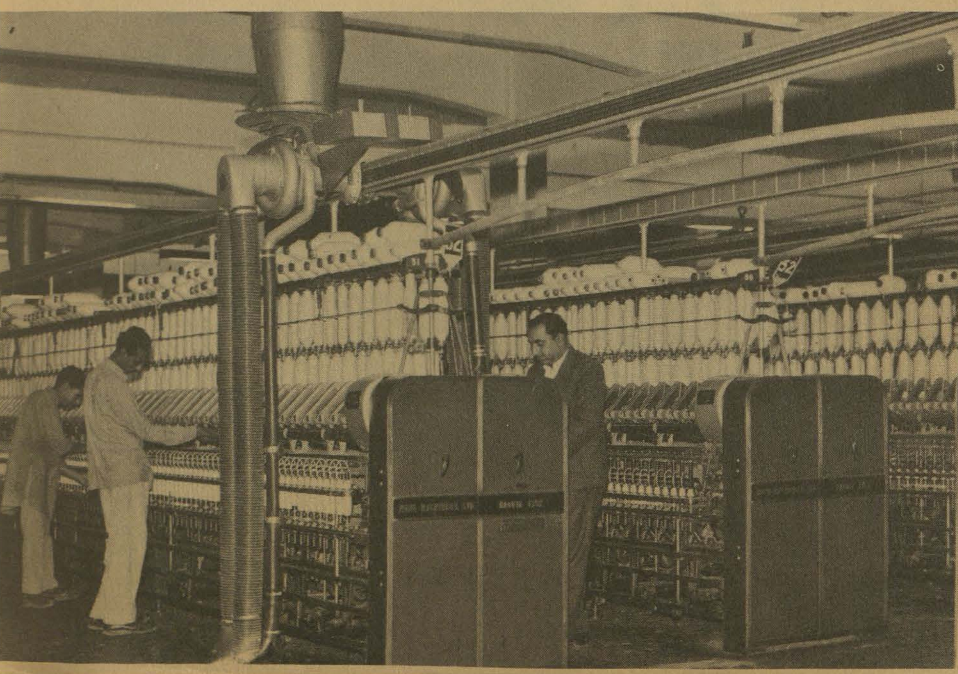
That our "Smartelle" is the smartest thing that has happened in the fashion world.

That our solvent extraction process in the Ghee manufacture is unique.

That our 'Insecticides' plant is the first Commercial Plant of its kind in the world.
That we are the Pioneers in introducing Computer Services in Pakistan.

None of these, again, is our strongest point.





We think and act on a different plane.

We are proud that:

We create job opportunities.

We provide higher skills and technical know-how.

We train a task force of thousands.

We impart modern management techniques to our personnel.

We give the highest priority to labour welfare.

We export and earn foreign exchange.

Our Industries are based on indigenous raw materials.

We believe:

In developing healthy concepts of Management.

In new concepts of organisation.

In proper Planning and correct Forecasting.

In providing moral and material motivation for profitability.

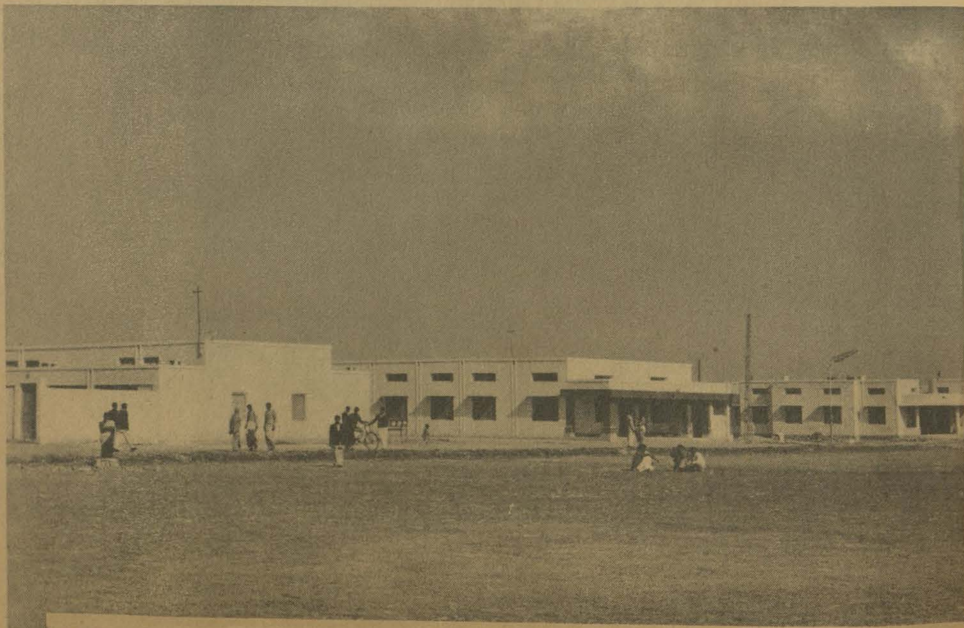
In creating incentives to production.

In innovation as a driving force in business.

In relating our experiences to our policies, practices and procedures.

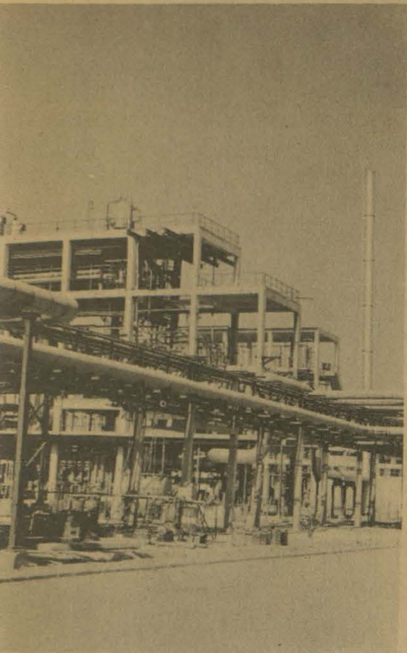
In continuous development of administrative skills.





In delegation of operating responsibilities.

With us Profit is not a dirty word because:



We recognise the social implications of our decisions.

We are sensitive to our social obligations.

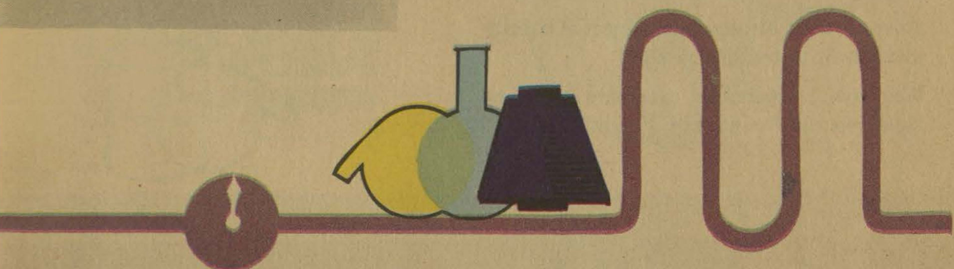
We identify our actions with the social goals of the community and work for the advancement of those goals.

We believe in the social responsibility of business and its voluntary assumptions as a practicable means towards ameliorating economic problems and attaining greater measure of social welfare.

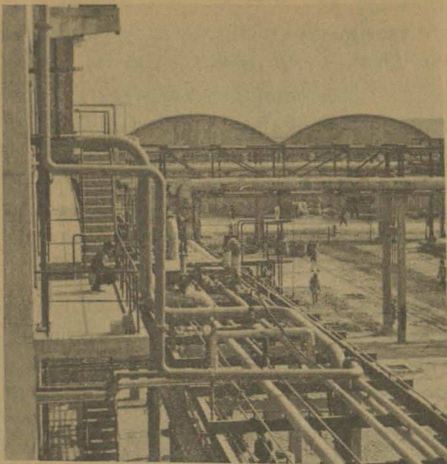
We think ourselves as Trustees "mediating among the interests. of stock holders, workers, customers, local communities and the general public".

Our *prime achievement. however,* is the *Saigol Foundation.* The Foundation was set up in June 1960.

Its objects being:







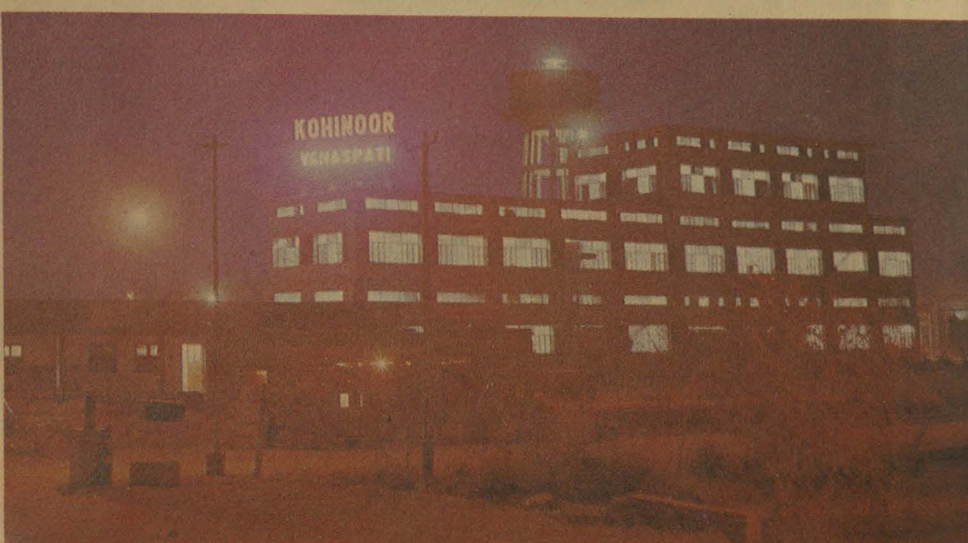
So far 539 Inland Merit Scholarships worth Rs.18,00000 have been given and Forty two scholars sent abroad for higher Professional and Technical Training and Studies. Besides Saigol Foundation have awarded two hundred and Forty six scholarships on compassionate grounds.

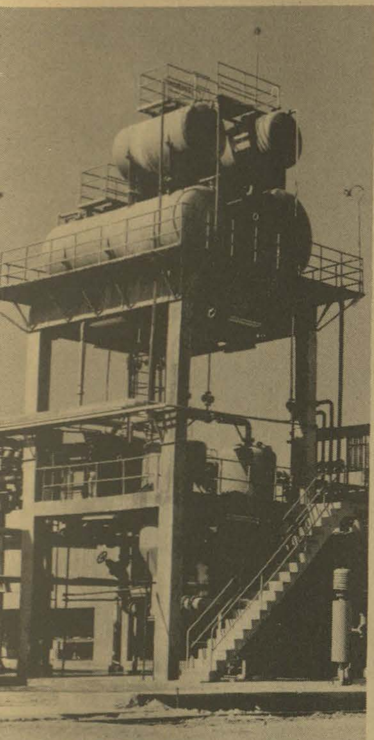
Rs. One lac were donated to the Sadiq Public School, Bahawalpur.

The advancement of education, diffusion of knowledge and promotion of Literature, Science and Fine Arts in Pakistan. Relief, prevention and extinction of poverty, disease, misery and distress in Pakistan.

Advancement of any other object of charity and public utility in Pakistan.

We have contributed over one crore of rupees to the Foundation Fund.

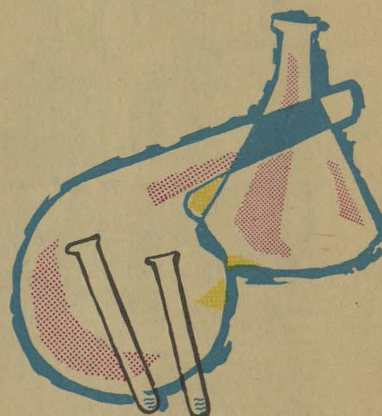


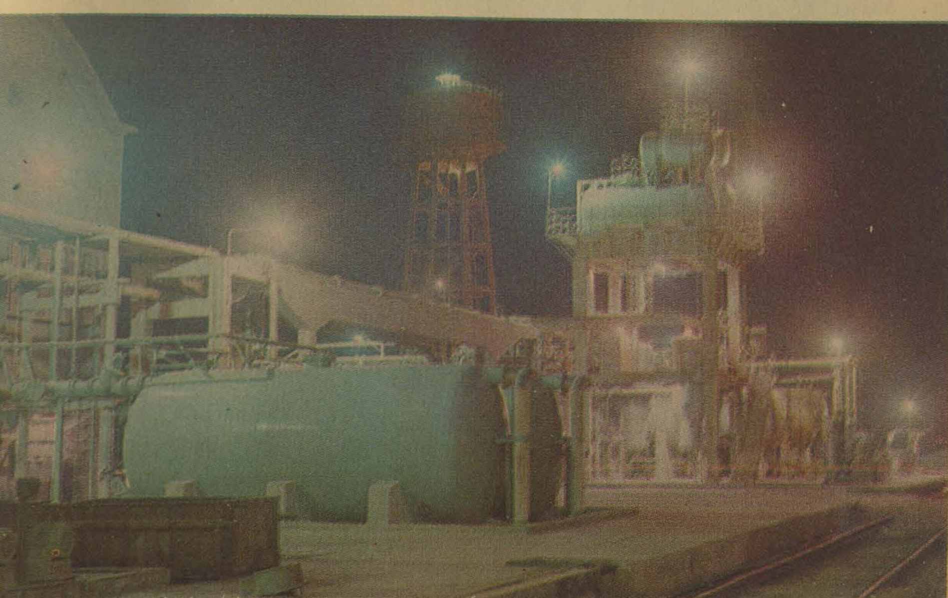


A similar amount was donated for the construction of a Saigol Block at the Model High School, Islamabad.

The Saigol House, an imposing building, was added to the Aitchison College at a cost of over Rs. 13 lacs.

A special donation was sanctioned for the Sunrise Institute for the Blind, for the construction of new quarters to provide residential facilities to the blind students.

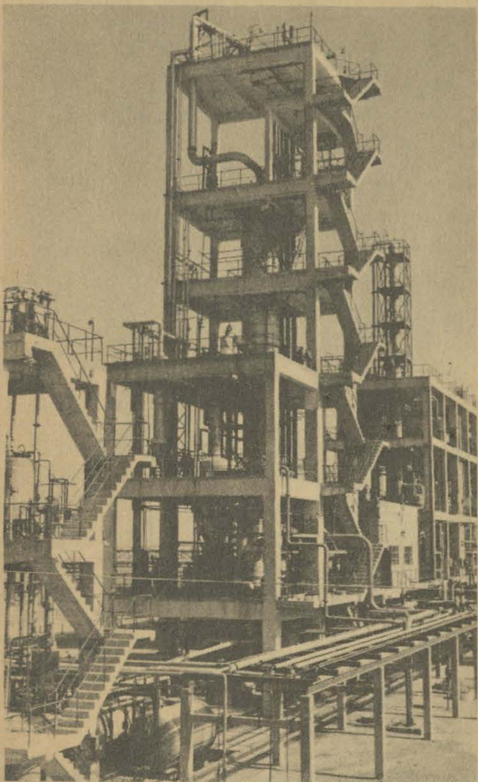




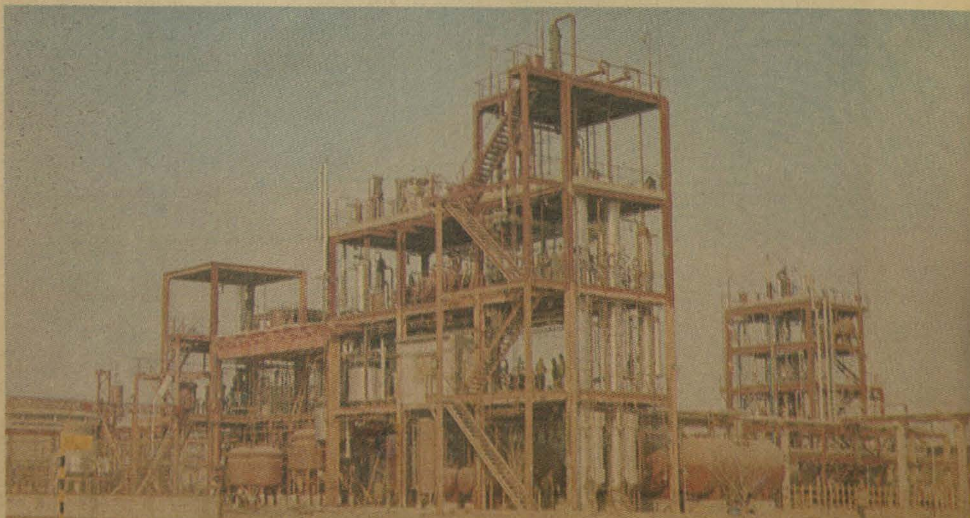
A special donation was given to the Punjab Union of Journalists Benefit Fund for helping the families of Journalists who lost their lives in the P.I.A. Boeing crash near Cairo.

A grant was given to the Majlis Shah Hussain, a cultural body, for publication of books.

A large sum was set apart to meet the educational expenses of the children of our Armed Forces personnel who laid down







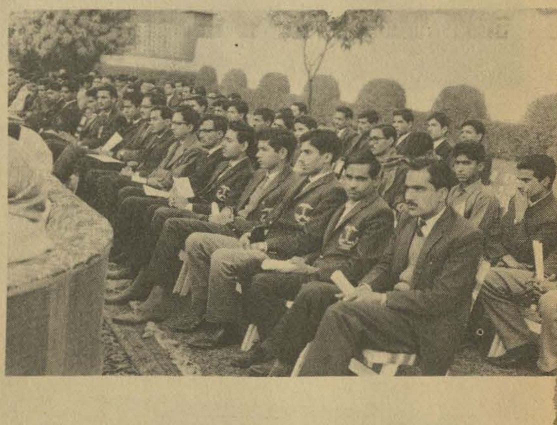


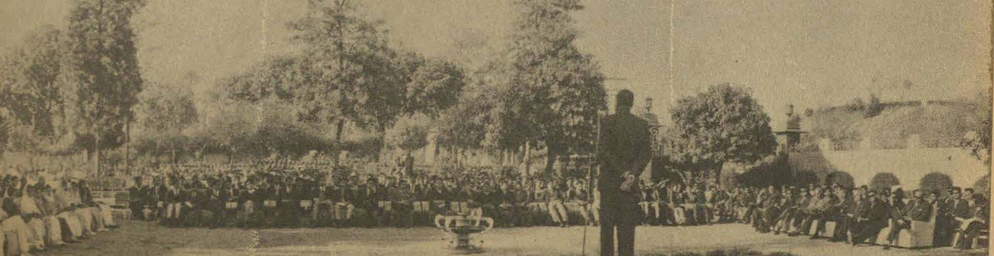
their lives during the Indo Pakistan Conflict in September, 1965.

A sizeable amount was contributed towards the construction of the Masjid-i-Shohda.

We stop short here.

Somehow, it does not appear quite correct to detail and narrate our participation in "all good works".





It is not a favour that flows from us.

It is merely an expression of our gratitude to the society we serve.

It is merely fulfilling a Duty to-wards the Community we live in.

We firmly believe in what Mian Sayeed Saigol, HQA, liked to repeat ad infinitum:

"Those who have benefited their fellow men can count on felicity because this cannot be bough[t] it can only be earned."

We like to be remembered as people who Earn and Serve.





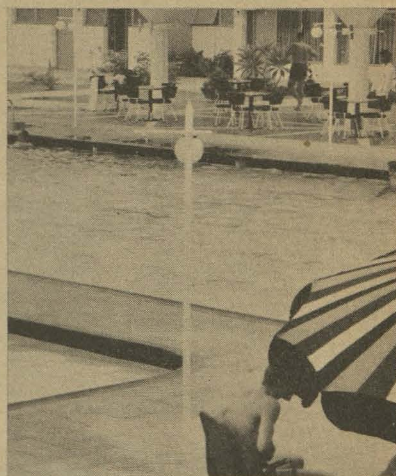





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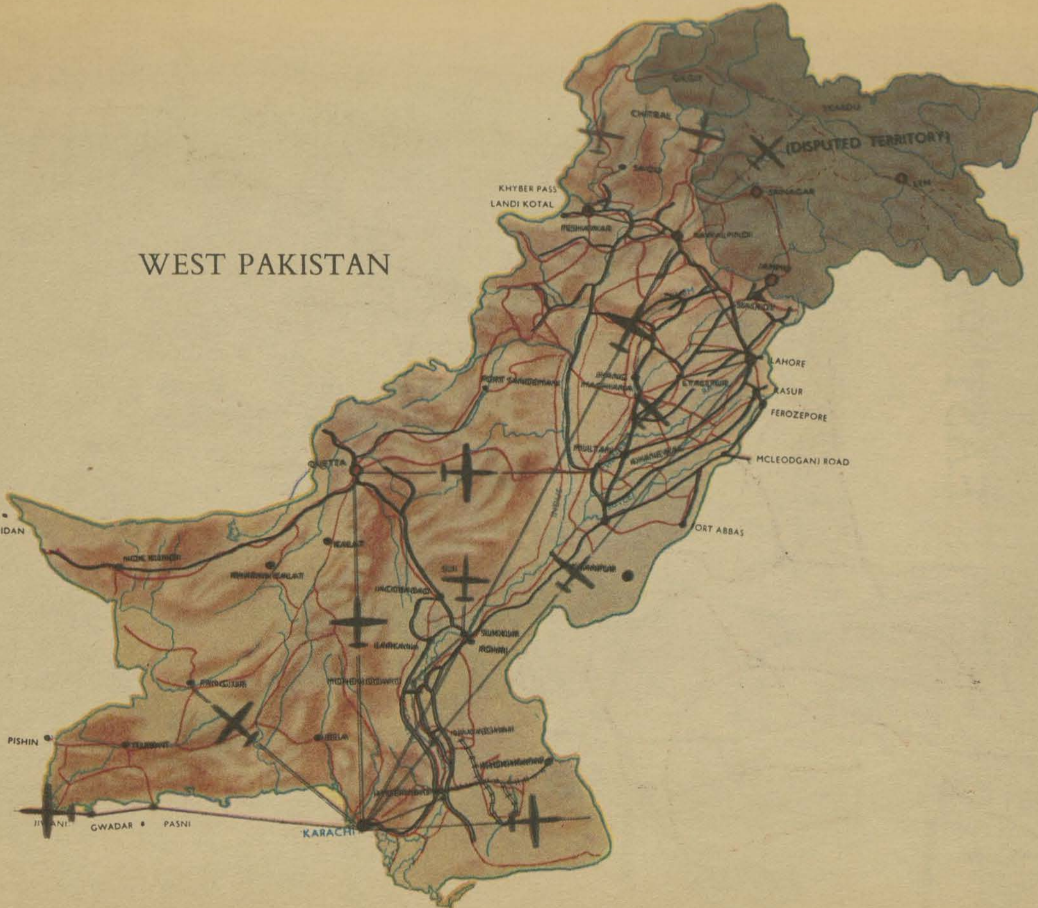
Introduction by

Altaf Gauhar, H.Q.A., S.Pk., C.S.P.
Founding Editor

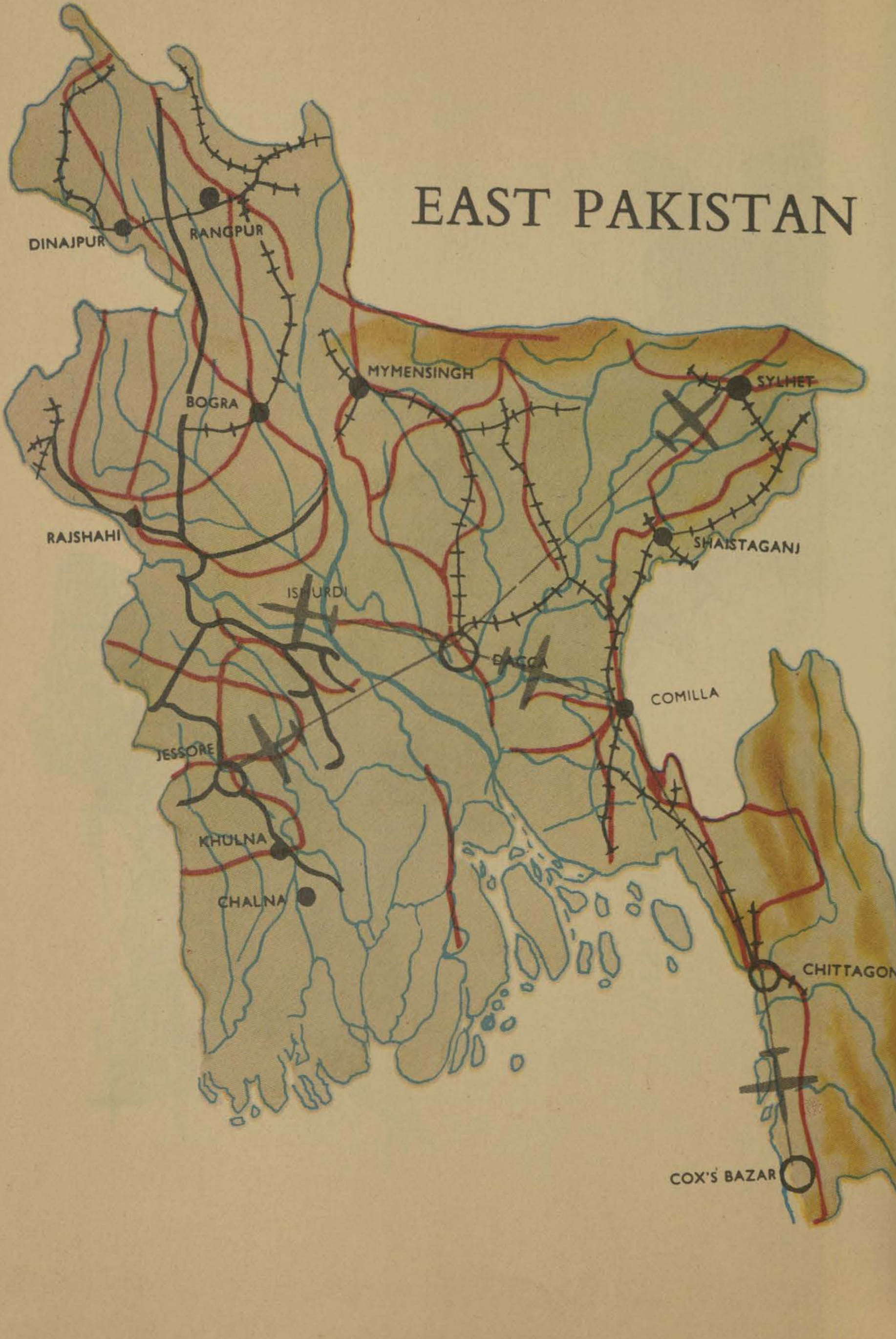
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WEST PAKISTAN



EAST PAKISTAN





Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan, N.Pk., H. J., President of Pakistan.

Contents

Introduction

The publication of *Pakistan Year-Book* 1969 has been undertaken as a continuation of *Twenty Years of Pakistan* 1947-1967, to begin a year-by-year review of the nation's life — of progress achieved and problems encountered.

The country has acquired an economic infrastructure and a broad industrial base. The growth targets have been more than realized, and Pakistan is today cited as a model of development. There has been a breakthrough in agriculture and the country is fast moving to a stage of self-sufficiency in food. If the land system can be reorganized to bring about pooling of land to facilitate large-scale mechanization, the country should achieve a food surplus in a few years.

Helped by stability and economic growth, Pakistan has been able to evolve a balanced and realistic foreign policy which has admirably served national interests and has brought great prestige to the nation.

The country has acquired a sense of pride and assurance in its ability to defend itself against aggression.

The new generation is born in an age of science and technological strategy to improve its prospects. Islam stands for One God, Equality of Man and Social Justice: these concepts are eternal. The educated Muslim society, a society which is trying to develop through science and technology, must understand the principles of Islam in a scientific and rational manner, as is indeed repeatedly stressed in the Quran. This is the only way in which we can practise Islam as a vital philosophy — the only way in which we can promote the human progress for which Islam stands.

This book tells the story of how Pakistan has developed in different spheres of life by applying the principles of Islam to present-day conditions. The objective in every field has been the welfare of the people.

I hope this book will serve as a useful reference work for all those institutions, scholars and general readers who may be interested in Pakistan. Its different chapters contain all relevant information on important subjects, and an attempt has been made to present this information in a simple readable form. While every effort has been made to update statistics to 1967-68 wherever possible, in other instances the material available at the time of writing did not go beyond 1966-67.

I must thank Mr. Mumtaz Hasan, Chairman of the National Publishing House, who has been personally supervising the compilation and preparation of this book. His eminence as a scholar and his experience as an administrator should give this book added prestige and value.

ALTAF GAUHAR
Founding Editor

Rawalpindi,
December 25, 1968.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The National Publishing House wishes to express its appreciation and thanks for the help it has received from various Ministries and Departments of the Government and from the Planning Commission in revising the manuscript of the *Year-Book* and in providing relevant statistical data. The Bureau of National Reference and Research in the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, in particular, has been extremely helpful. NPH also appreciatively records its thanks for the co-operation it has received from various writers and experts who have collaborated, and for the generous support received from a wide range of advertisers.

Land and People

PAKISTAN comprises two zones, the eastern and the western, which are separated by a thousand miles of the Indian land mass. The total area of Pakistan is 365,529 square miles — East Pakistan 55,126 square miles and West Pakistan 310,403 square miles.

East Pakistan: This zone is located between the latitudes of 20°30' and 26°45' North and between the longitudes 88° and 92°50' East. On its north, east and west is India. In the south there is the Bay of Bengal. For a small stretch in the south-east, it has a common border with Burma.

East Pakistan mostly consists of low, flat plains, intersected by numerous rivers, their distributaries, *khals*, *bils*, *hoaurs* and marshes. The gentleness of the gradient can be judged from the fact that many places, although about 100 miles from the sea, are less than 30 feet above sea level. The slope is less than five inches per mile. But there are hilly areas in the north-and south-east.

East Pakistan may be divided into three physical regions: (i) old alluvial (pleistocene) deposits; (ii) recent flood plain; and (iii) Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Pleistocene Area: The larger part of the pleistocene area, which is known as *Barind,* covers about 3,600 square miles; the most important of the other parts is the Madhupur Jungle. The flood plain of the river Mahananda flanks the west side of the *Barind,* and the Karatoya river describes the eastern margin. Describing the north-eastern flank of the *Barind* is a north-west to south-east fault 40 miles long, upthrown to the south-west. The south-westward tilting of the eastern part of the *Barind,* periodic disastrous earthquakes and major changes in stream diversions, all suggest im-

portant structural activity in this region.

North of the city of Dacca lies the 1,585 square-mile Madhupur Jungle. Alleviations on the Madhupur surface range from approximately 20 feet in the south and east to a maximum of about 100 feet above sea level. A remarkable characteristic of the Madhupur Jungle is the abrupt western margin separating the low, flat flood plain from the uneven, highly dissected pleistocene surface. The entire irregular margin is formed by a series of six echelon faults, ranging from 6 to 13 miles in length. The Madhupur pleistocene island has been important in the recent history of the river Brahmaputra and its depositional activity in East Pakistan. Lalmai, Sylhet and Chhatack Hills are the three other pleistocene outliers. The Lalmai Hills consist of an uplifted block bounded by faults. The other two areas are of similar origin but no faults are evident, possibly because of the rapid destruction of faults, scarps by monsoon rainfalls. The Sylhet Hills cover 72 square miles and attain a maximum elevation of 260 feet to 300 feet above sea level. These hills are associated with numerous low swampy areas (*hoaurs*) in the Sylhet basin. Structurally, the Sylhet basin is probably the most active part of East Pakistan. The pleistocene sediments are flood plain deposits of the earlier Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers. That they occur in several extensive areas above the level of the present flood plane indicates that there have been differential movements between pleistocene and recent times.

Recent Flood Plain: It is formed by recent deposits, in the shape of combined deltaic masses and flood plains, of the Ganges, Brahmaputra and Meghna rivers and covers more than 50,000 square miles. This big region can be divided into four parts: (i) Alluvial fans, (ii) Tippera surface, (iii) Sylhet basin and (iv) Deltaic plains.

The Teesta, Atrai, Mahananda, Purnabhaba, Old Jamuna and Karotoya rivers rise as a part of the drainage system of the Himalayan foot-hills. These and many other streams have developed extensive alluvial fans. Downstream, these rivers and streams gradually flatten their gradients and ultimately become the tributaries of the Ganges and Brahmaputra systems.

The Tippera surface and Sylhet basin are structurally active areas. The Tippera surface has been gaining elevation in the order of four to six feet, while the Sylhet basin has subsided by about 30 to 40 feet within the last few hundred years.

The remaining region consists of the recent deltaic plain. This is geologically a very complex area; it is the site of the sedimentary deposits by two of the world's major rivers and it comprises a number of overlapping sub-deltas. The deltaic region is constantly subsiding owing mainly to what is called the compaction of recent sediments and possibly to a structural downwarping.

Chittagong Hill Tracts: These comprise a number of hill ranges running north to south and enclosing longitudinal river valleys. The hills rise in tapering masses and at the top are generally no wider than about 120 feet. The highest peak in East Pakistan is Keokradong at the south-eastern extremity of the



A scenic view from the northern area of West Pakistan.

The historic Khyber Pass near Peshawar.





Jute stalks stored on the bank of a river.

A scenic view from East Pakis



region and it is 4,034 feet above sea level.

West Pakistan: This zone is located between the latitudes of 23°30' and 36°45' North and between the longitudes of 61° and 75°30' East. On its east and south-east lies India On the north and north-west is Afghanistan, on the west Iran and in the south the Arabian Sea. It has a common border with China along its Gilgit Agency and Baltistan. The USSR is separated from Pakistan by a narrow strip of Afghan territory called Wakhan.

West Pakistan can be divided into seven major physiographic units or regions: (i) the northern mountains, (ii) western bordering mountains (iii) Salt range and Potwar plateau, (iv) Upper Indus plain, (v) Lower Indus plain, (vi) Baluchistan plateau, and (vii) Thar desert.

The Himalayan and trans-Himalayan ranges constitute the bulk of the northern mountains. Included in the trans-Himalayans is the Karakorum range, which is about 20,000 ft. high. Its highest peak is Mount Godwin Austen (K-2), 28,250 ft. In the north-west lies the Hindukush range, with Tirich Mir as its highest peak.

The location of the northern mountains is very important for West Pakistan, in that they intercept the winds from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal and thus cause the rainfall. At the same time, they form a great barrier to the cold winds from Central Asia to the plains of West Pakistan.

The western bordering mountains stand in the west of the Indus plain. Three minor ranges run south from the Hindukush to the Kabul river and between these ranges flow Swat, the Panjkora, and the Chitrak-Kunar rivers. South of the Kabul river lies the famous Khyber Pass. The pass begins at Jamrud, about ten miles from Peshawar and runs for 23 miles up to Torkham, a frontier station between Afghanistan and Pakistan.

The Salt range begins near the Jhelum district and runs south-west for some distance before turning north-west to cross the Indus near Kalabagh. West of the Indus, the Salt range continues south into the districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. Large quantities of rock salt and other minerals such as gypsum and coal are found in this range.

North of the Salt range is the Potwar plateau about 2,000 feet above sea level. A large part of the plateau has been dissected and eroded by the action of running water and it presents a varied landscape.

South of the Himalayas and Salt range are vast plains stretching down to the Arabian Sea. The Upper Indus plain is divided into several *doabs*, meaning the land which lies between two rivers. The Rechna *doab* is between the Ravi and the Chenab, and the Chaj *doab* between the Jhelum and the Chenab. Between the Jhelum-Chenab and the Indus lies the largest of the *doabs*, the Sind Sagar *doab*, also known as Thal.

Below Mithankot begin the Lower Indus plains. These plains differ from the Upper Indus plains in that they have

been formed by the changing course of a single great river and the deposits are of comparatively recent origin. The river flows very slowly and the silt carried by it is largely deposited on its bed, thereby raising it above the level of the sandy plain. The land on either side is protected by the construction of embankments or *bunds*.

The large plateau of Baluchistan lies west of the Lower Indus plain. Dry hills run across the plateau from north-west to south-west. The Toba Kakar and Chagai ranges in the north separate it from Afghanistan. The central Brahui and Makran ranges lie in the centre and the coastal Makran range skirts the south of the plateau. The mountains in the north-west are higher than those in the south and contain valuable deposits of coal, iron, chromite and other minerals.

South-east of the Indus Valley or, more precisely, of the Lower Indus plain, is the Thar desert. It is part of the larger Rajputana desert which extends into Pakistan from India, and has salt lakes in its depressions.

In the southern portion of the Lower Indus plain, the Indus is a slow, majestic stream, several miles wide in the rainy season. Its bed has been rising, making it shallower, and embankments or *bunds* are needed to protect the adjacent areas from flood, which are devastated if any of the *bunds* is breached. South of Thatta begins the sub-region of the delta, it is marked by a network of flowing or abundant river beds. The coastal strip is flooded at high tides and has mangrove swamps.

Adjoining the delta on the east is the Rann of Kutch. It consists of a marshy, salt plain, almost flush with the sea level. It is an old marine gulf which has silted up and is flooded with sea-water during the monsoon season.

Climate: Climatically Pakistan offers perhaps the greatest measure of diversity. It ranges from the wet tropical climate of the areas of south of Chittagong to the most arid of the Kharan desert. Pakistan contains some of the hottest parts of the world in the Jacobabad and Sibi districts, while parts of Baluchistan and the northern mountain areas are characterized by extreme cold. In East Pakistan, the climate is generally humid, equable and tropical, and is characterized by rain and flood. These things dominate its environment. West Pakistan posseses, in contrast, a dry, continental climate, where rainfall is scanty. The diversity of climates and physical structures enables Pakistan to have a large variety of crops. Consequently its agricultural economy is well diversified and balanced.

In East Pakistan, the mean minimum temperature in January varies from 49° F to 56° F, while in July it ranges from 79° F to 80° F. The range of mean maximum temperatures varies from 75° F to 78° F in January and from 86° F to 89° F in July. The hottest months are April and May when temperatures of over 105° F have been recorded. The mean annual temperature varies from 57° F to 80° F.

The physical conditions vary so greatly in West Pakistan as to make the average or mean temperature virtually meaningless. Each physical region's average has to be seen in its

specific context. In the plains the mean minimum temperature in January varies from 40°F to 57°F and in July from 79°F to 87°F. The mean maximum temperature in January varies from 63°F to 78°F and in June from 90°F to 114°F. An absolute maximum of 126°F has been recorded at Jacobabad. Over large parts of West Pakistan, a mean daily maximum of 110°F to 112°F is common in summer, while in winter the mean minimum is around 40°F to 50°F and at times it goes down much lower. The mean minimum temperatures in the northern mountains and in parts of Baluchistan are well below freezing point.

Rainfall: Average annual rainfall in East Pakistan varies from 50" in the west to 100" in the south-east, while in the submontane region of north-eastern Sylhet it is about 200". The lowest average of rainfall is recorded at Lalpur (Rajshahi) at 47.9" while the highest rainfall average is recorded at Lallakhel (Sylhet) with 225.8". More than two-thirds of this rainfall is concentrated in the months of June to September (monsoon). These rains are associated with tropical cyclones. The storms which form in the Bay of Bengal, in autumn, often prolong the rainy season into October and even November. December and January are the driest months. The rainfall in any of these two months is not more than 1.5", and is generally less than half an inch.

There is a short pre-monsoon rainy season from April to May. It is due to thunderstorms or north-westerly gales. The rainfall in the season varies from 2" to 15".

West Pakistan suffers from a general deficiency of rainfall. In the plains, annual averages range from 5" in the northern parts of the Lower Indus plain to 35" in the Himalayan submontane region. It is monsoonic in origin and takes place late in the summer. Occasionally light rains follow the dust storms which usually take place early in the warm season. Baluchistan is the driest part of West Pakistan with an average of 8". With Baluchistan, the annual average is reduced to 2" in the desert of Kharan. On the southern ranges of the Himalayas, 50" of precipitation takes place, while in the lee of these mountains the rainfall is hardly six inches (in Gilgit and Baltistan).

Rainfall also occurs from western cyclonic disturbances originating in the Mediterranean; it is appreciable in the western mountains and the immediate forelying areas. Here the rainfall average ranges from 10" to 30". The contribution of these western disturbances to the rainfall over the plains is about 1.5". A large part of the precipitation in the northern mountain system is in the form of snow which feeds the rivers.

As a consequence of the rainfall distribution, East Pakistan's climate is characterized by humidity which is high throughout the year. In summer, it is generally over 80 per cent and is rarely less than 70 per cent.

Due to low rainfall and high diurnal ranges of temperature, in West Pakistan the humidity is considerably reduced. Only the coastal strip has high humidity.

Soils: Soils of East Pakistan belong

to the wet group called pedalfers that are alluvial in nature. The *Barind* and Madhupur Jungle are characteristic of old alluvium or sandy loam (locally known as *pali*). The new alluvium is widely distributed in the plains, particularly in the vicinity of rivers. South-western areas are characterized by clayey loams. For the most part, clay and clayey soils are characteristic of East Pakistan. In certain coastal areas which sea-water inundates, saline soils are found. The effect of the leeching of the soil is minimized due to heavy annual deposits of silt made by the rivers and the moving masses of water.

In West Pakistan, soils are of considerable variety. Most of them, however, fall under the dry group called pedocals possessing a high content of calcium carbonate and a low content of humus or organic matter. Extensive use of irrigation waters has put these soils—themselves characteristic of low and erratic rainfall—to extensive use, and they are generally fertile.

Soils in the plains are alluvial, both old and new. In most of Baluchistan, Thar and the Thal deserts, soils are wind-blown deposits called loess mixed with alluvium. Due to the arid nature of the climate, soil erosion through wind direction poses a great problem, particularly in the Potwar plateau. This is not a problem in East Pakistan because the ground is generally moist and plant cover is generally plentiful.

Vegetation: East Pakistan is lush green and rich in flora. Its climate being mild, rainfall heavy and soil fertile, processes of natural growth are greatly facilitated. About 16 per cent of the eastern zone is covered with forests, though due to the pressure of population, forests are being cut down. There are three important areas of natural forests. Chittagong and the Chittagong Hill Tracts are tropical rain forests. There are three storeys of plants: the first comprises trees over 100 feet tall; in the second are trees of shorter height; and the third consists of smaller herbacious and shrubby plants. Most of these trees have their trunks covered with epiphytic orchids, mosses and ferns. Climbing plants are numerous. They grow rapidly and reach the top of trees. A prominent example of it is the cane (*calamus*). Teak and garjen are the important trees, and there are plenty of bamboo varieties from which pulp and paper can be made.

The Sunderbans are deltaic or tidal forests and the main tree is sundri (*Herittiera Minor*). Next in importance is the gewa tree (*Excoeacaria Agallocha*). Mangrove plants abound in the marshy parts of these forests and in the less saline places, palms are also common. The third series of forest comprises the Madhupur Jungle lying between the Meghna and Jamuna rivers. Here sal (*shorea robusta*) is the main tree which is locally called *garhgajarie*.

East Pakistan possesses many types of palms and bamboos, teak, mahogany, silk cotton tree, banana, magnolia and rhododendron. There are few areas of grassland, for most of the non-forested area is cultivated. Grasslands are found in the areas from north Comilla to south-west Sylhet and south-east Mymensingh, in the Madhupur tract, and in the upper reaches of Atrai and Tangan in the north-west. Savannah are also found in all river areas, which are of two kinds: Sungrass (*Sankholas*)

or thatchgrass and khagra (*Sacchareum Spontaneum* or *Narenger*). The latter is found along the banks of larger rivers or swamps.

In West Pakistan, except for the Himalayan region, low rainfall obtains and the vegetation in the plains is characteristic of dry regions. It consists mainly of tough wiry grass or dry low bushes with relatively low trees in less dry areas. A significant part of the province is desert which contains little vegetation. Forests cover approximately 2.5 per cent of the area. The province contains some forests that are really man-made, through irrigation. Examples of these are Chhanga Manga and Chichawatni in the district of Sahiwal, and Wan Bachran in the Thal area. Two of the typical trees are shisham (*Daldbergia Sirsco*) and mulberry; the former is good for making furniture and the latter for sports goods. Along the Indus, in the Lower Indus plain, there are riverine (*bela*) forests. Shisham and babul (*Acacia Arabica*) are typical and the bark of the latter is used for tanning. Groves of date-palm are also common and there is the mangrove type of forest in the coastal region. Pipal (*Ficus Religiosa*), jand, karil, farash and kikar occur over a wide area.

West Pakistan grows many fruits: mango, guava, banana and many kinds of citrus fruit are found. In the area between Lahore and Sahiwal, as also near Sargodha, there are extensive plantations of citrus fruits and flowers. The natural vegetation of the area is xerophytic.

Baluchistan is typified by extremely xerophytic vegetation and large areas are completely devoid of vegetation. In the north-east, where rainfall is better and irrigation is also possible, there are gardens of almond, apple, apricot, cherry, plum, pomegranate, grape and melon.

In the northern mountains, there are clearly demarcated zones of vegetation according to elevation and rainfall. In the foot-hills, below 3,000 feet, are forests of phulai, kao, chinar and wild olive. Above it, there are evergreen soft-wood trees, the most typical of which is deodar. Hardwood, deciduous broad-leaved trees like oak, chestnut and walnut are supported on the warmer and rainier slopes. The dominant tree on the hills up to 5,000 ft. is the long-leaved pine with three needles. Between 5,000 and 6,000 feet are found the temperate flora; blue pine with five needles is typical. This is essentially a transitional zone where evergreen oak is found. Above this height, the oak, too, changes and between 6,000 and 7,000 feet, there are other trees besides oak and pine; maple, poplar, horse-chestnut, ash, spruce, yew and fir are abundant. Above 7,000 feet fir is common, and above 8,000-9,000 feet there are pure stands of them. Ivy climber is also common. Above 10,000 or 11,000 feet is found the birch with white bark, and at this height, dwarf, willow and juniper are also present. In the inner and drier valleys *pianus gerardiana*, and *artimisia martitima* grow; the former yields a delicious fruit, the pine nut, while the latter is the source of the drug, santonin. Much of the area above 9,000 feet consists of alpine pastures, with different types of alpine flowers, particularly in Swat and the Kaghan valley.

Fauna: The eastern zone is by far the richer in animal and insect life. In the shallower waters live reptiles, fishes and submerged plants. The Sunderbans are the home of the Royal Bengal tiger. In these jungles, the mangrove swamps are crocodile-infested. Elephant, leopard, swan deer, sambhar, barking deer, muntjack, bison and bear are the denizens of Chittagong Hill Tracts. In Sylhet, is the rhinoceros.

In the Cox's Bazar area, herds of wild elephants are found and monkeys, golden langoors, the gibbons, the intelligent Blyth's macaque and Java monkeys roam its forests.

In West Pakistan, the waters around Karachi are excellent fishing grounds, and the surmai often weighs 15-20 lbs. Lobster, prawn, cod, mackerel, whale, shark, dolphin and many others abound.

In the delta region, crocodile, gavial, harmless python, hog deer and wild boar are also to be found. Poisonous snakes, such as the cobra, the viper and the krait, and many kinds of non-poisonous snakes are found in grassy areas.

The northern part of the western wing abounds in wild life. The Siberian ibex, the Marcopolo sheep, and the markhor are found. Urial, the frisky goral, and the blue sheep, or bharol are encountered occasionally. The handsome snow leopard is sometimes met and brown bear and the black Himalayan bear are also found.

The bird population shows a rich variety. There are over 100 main species of resident birds, of which many sing. There are many varieties of pigeon and pheasant.

On the hillsides, leopards stalk at night and there are jackal, fox, wild cat, musk-cat, hyena, porcupine, rodents and reptiles.

The plains support those birds and mammals which feed on crops. The waters of the river Indus sustain a rich treasure of water birds: the mallard, teal, shoveller, spotbill, goose, wild duck, goosender, smew and others. In the southern regions are found desert gazelles and blue peacocks.

PEOPLE

The Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent has attracted migrants from both the north-east and the north-west from time immemorial. For thousands of years, people have entered through these routes, settling and mixing with the pre-Dravidian stocks. The process lasted a long time and eventually the Dravidian type emerged. The migrants and invaders came mainly from Central and Western Asia.

The Dravidians were followed by the Aryans, Greeks, Persians, Arabs, Turks, and Mughals and, as could be expected, a mixture of races has resulted. The final blend may be said to be a predominantly Caucasian general type, with Mediterranean strains outstanding (strains which are also found in the people of Iran, Afghanistan, Arabia and parts of Turan). In terms of origin, the dominant racial type in Pakistan is the Indo-Aryan.

The later thrusts brought in broad-headed Scythians and Mongoloids.



Tea gardens at Sylhet.

A farmer with his bullock cart, from the Pothohar region in West Pakistan.

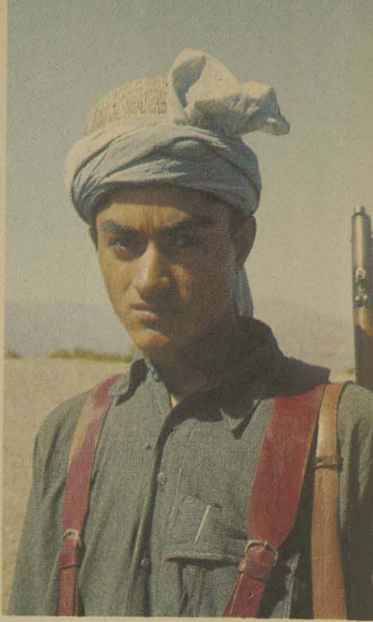


A fisherman in East Pakistan waters.



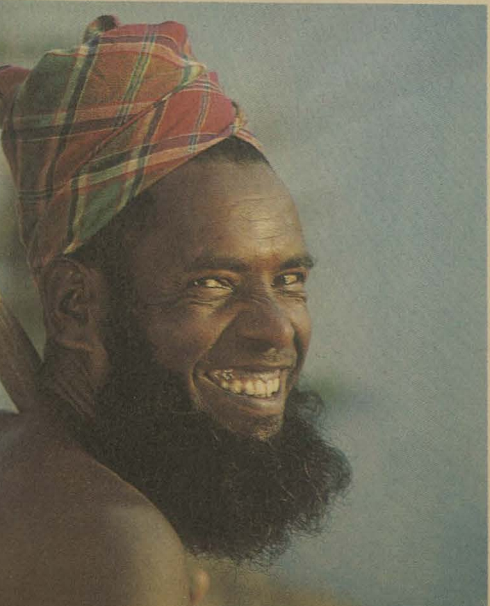


Three generations of wrestlers: Gama Pahlwan (the unbeaten champion) with his son and grandson.

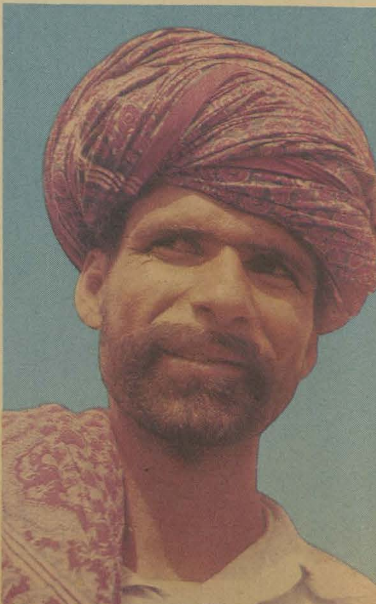


A Pathan tribesman.

A jovial fisherman from East Pakistan.



A typical Sindhi farmer.



Mongoloid traces are specially notable in the eastern districts of East Pakistan and the Dravidian traces in the Kalat area of West Pakistan. The people of the north-western and the western part of Pakistan, the Pathans and the Baluchis, are mainly an admixture of Turkish and Iranian strains, both being important branches of the Aryan family.

Religion: The overwhelming majority of Pakistanis is Muslim, but Pakistan is also the home of a number of other religions. The largest religious minority is that of Hindus, concentrated mainly in East Pakistan, though a sprinkling of them is also found in widely different parts of West Pakistan. There are 9 million Hindus, both scheduled castes and higher castes, in East Pakistan and they constitute 10.7 per cent of the total population. Christians are also widely spread in both the zones of the country. Their numbers are small and they are only 1.4 per cent of the population in West Pakistan. The Buddhists, concentrated mainly in East Pakistan, number some 370,000. An economically important religious minority, mainly concentrated in West Pakistan, is that of the Parsis, numbering about 5,000.

Demographic details are given in the tables at the end of this chapter.

Languages: Bengali is spoken exclusively in East Pakistan. In West Pakistan, a number of languages, all belonging to the Aryan group (with the exception of Brohi, which is spoken by a small number of people of Dravidian origin in the Kalat area of West Pakistan), are spoken in different sub-regions. Pushto is spoken in the north-west, Panjabi in the upper Indus plain, Sindhi in the lower Indus plain, and Baluchi in most parts of the area known as Baluchistan. Urdu serves as the *lingua franca* for West Pakistan. It is also one of the two national languages, the other being Bengali.

English continues to be used for official purposes. Pending full implementation of the constitutional provisions relating to the national languages, it is still the official language of all the three Governments and of higher courts. It is also the language of large-scale commerce.

Regional Characteristics: East Pakistan being, for the most part, a plain of gentle gardient, no one need look for ruggedness in the life, work, speech and culture of East Pakistan such as is ordinarily associated with people of mountainous regions.

Here the accent is on gentleness of temperament, though the capacity for hard work, grit and dogged determination required to cope with the angry moods of nature — manifesting itself in cyclones, tidal bores, and floods — is present in abundance. The Bengali tongue is sweet to the ear and easy to speak.

The pace of the folk-dances, the tunes of the popular songs, the quality of the music, all exemplify this combined trait of gentleness and strength, of rhythm and verve of what may impressionistically be called swirl. These, in their turn, mirror the actual rhythm of the working life of the common man.

The poets, over the ages, have sung of the eternal verities and of the abid-

ing human emotions. They seek, so often, to capture and transmit the joy of a farmer who has just reaped a bumper crop of paddy; the elated feelings of a fisherman whose net has brought forth a sizable catch or his dejection when it is poor; the optimistic ambitions of a jute producer, who after back-breaking labour, has been able to sell his produce at a good price or the gloom when he fails to get it; or the hopes and fears of men who ply boats, on rivers and on the sea, over waters calm and on stormy waves. The life that is lived so near the edge of calamity — floods, boatwreck, drought, cyclones and famine — must necessarily be intense.

The folklore is like a lesson in geography and demography. There are mystiques for each river; how the Padma is liable suddenly to add to man's woes, for instance. The connection between crops and celebrations, between the quantum of production and the greediness of the moneylender, between visitations of nature and destitution and hunger point towards different facets of the economic and social life.

East Pakistan provides a fascinating example of the directness of the relationship between man's environment and his work, play, art and thought. The special physical features of the land that sustains 55 million souls are writ large. Apart from rivers and the rich alluvial soil, the outstanding among these is the rains. Their quantity and timing are both significant. These determine the well-marked phases of the work cycle. The overall imprint of monsoon over the whole region meets even the casual eye.

The commonest sight is the man in the jute or paddy field. He has to work hard. His looks, clothes and methods of work are eloquent commentaries on the economic and social conditions of the region.

Not having any mountains, East Pakistan is short of road building material, and the number of rivers, rivulets and water channels is so large that every mile of road would need scores of culverts and bridges. It is, therefore, cheaper and more convenient to depend on riverine communications. The boat is the typical means of transport and a large part of the population, therefore, lives by plying, making and repairing boats of typical designs.

Rice and fish are the staple food. Every village has a number of ponds—some natural and some artificial. Fish is 'grown' in them and the rivers are full of this proteinous food.

Apart from rice, jute and small handicrafts, the most important function of a shopping centre or *hat,* as it is commonly known, is the selling and buying of fish. The *hat,* a periodical affair in a village, smells strongly of fish even at a distance.

The quest for fish takes men to the high seas. At any moment, on an average, four to five thousand boats, each containing several men, are braving the hazards of deep-sea fishing. A significant proportion of fishermen—accounting for about one fifth or so of the population—are engaged in "sea farming". They do so in small sail boats with scanty provisions and no modern equipment for maintaining

contact with the shore. Each voyage is a saga of human skill, endurance and courage in the face of the elements.

The north-western region of West Pakistan is the home of many a legend. The valorous and freedom-loving Pathans of this rugged mountainous region have of necessity to be hardy and industrious. But they produce fighters as well as poets and their hospitality has been a byword through history.

The Pathan's love of freedom kept the British at bay. They were never fully subjugated. The English soldier always had a healthy respect for the deadly accuracy of this born sniper's fire.

The Panjabi is quintessentially a farmer-soldier. Usually tall, well-built, active, forward looking, disciplined and industrious, he makes a very fine soldier. He does not lose his head in victory nor does he panic against heavier odds. The bulk of the fighting potential of Pakistan's armed forces is provided by him. He makes as good an administrator and scientific research worker as an artisan or industrial worker.

Culturally, his folk-songs and dances and the rhythm of his life exhibit two outstanding characteristics. There is a deep sense of religion and a generosity of spirit. The positive, optimistic outlook of an active and on-the-march people is combined with a zest for life and a readiness to go out into the unknown.

The fast pace of the folk-dances, such as *luddi* or *bhangra*, is typical of the first aspect. The long and distinguished tradition of deeply devotional Punjabi poetry expresses the other element of the Punjabi outlook and character.

The cultural characteristics of the lower Indus valley people derive from the rich and great sources of the pre-Aryan civilization of Mohenjodaro and the direct impact of Islam, not to mention the constant ingress of influences emanating from the heart land of the Sub-continent, and from Iran and Persian Gulf territories. The Sindhi way of living and working, the depth as well as the rich variety of the peoples' sensibilities, seem to echo both the typical geography and indelible historical influences. The fine handicrafts that are characteristic of the Sindhi region partake of all the traditions and influences which go to form the rich Sindhi lore.

Contentment with one's fortunes, the urge to seek truth and bliss through contemplation of the mysteries of life and man's relationship with God, are native to the Sindhi mind.

The Baluchi lore and literature bespeak their tribal history, chivalry and social set-up. Their poetry reflects the hopes, aspirations and fears of a mountainous people, whose life and work are intense and hard — such as can only be expected from the stony environment. The sensibilities it exhibits are of a fine nature and of peculiar intensity. The language shows all too clearly the geographical proximity to Iran and Afghanistan. The strong imprint of Islam is equally evident.

And it must not be forgotten that

in recent times, following the partition of the Sub-continent, several million Muslims came to Pakistan from various regions of India, including such centres of culture and learning as Calcutta, Delhi, U. P., Bihar and Hyderabad, Deccan. Their way of life mingles with that of the different regions in which they have settled and adds to their variety. But since, comparatively speaking,. their number is small, their presence is to be felt most in their contribution to the literature, fine arts and handicrafts of Pakistan.

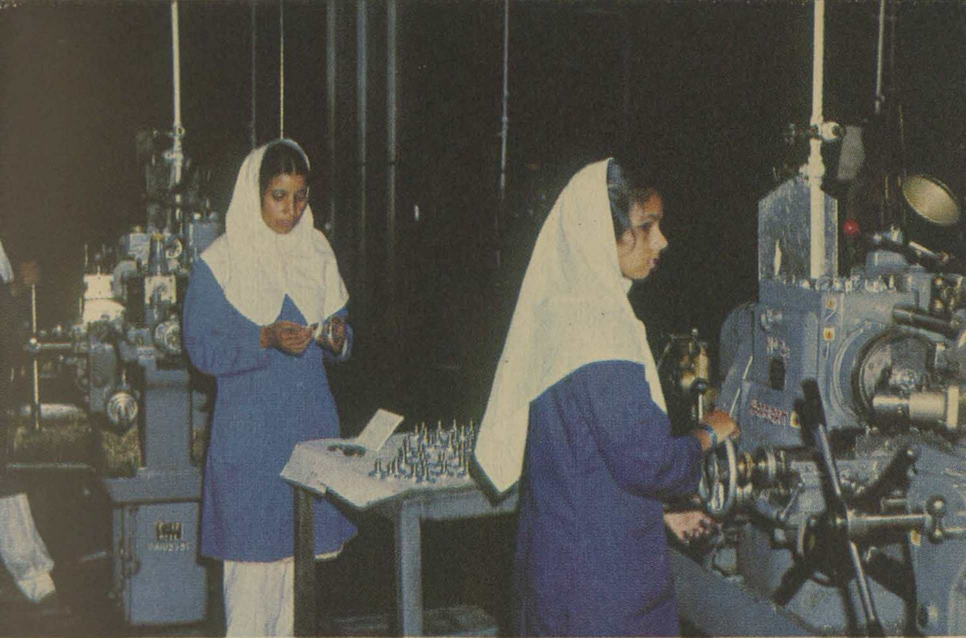
The ethnic strains to be found in Pakistan are numerous. From prehistorical to modern times, almost all great races from different parts of the globe found their way into the territories of Pakistan and left visible traces in the physical features of the people and their languages. Though they all belong originally to the same family, the different languages spoken in Pakistan still bear the imprint of a host of contributory elements. It all makes up an interesting panorama.

The rich diversity of their life is woven into a single and culturally homogeneous pattern by the strong bond of Islam. Islam not only holds them together as a religion, but also makes for a unity of outlook and way of life, a unity which transcends cultural and linguistic diversities. Another unifying element is their common historical experience in the Sub-continent. So powerful are the links of Islam and history that East and West Pakistan have been welded together despite the distance of one thousand miles between them.

The Drive for Progress: Rich and ancient as the cultural heritage of Pakistanis is, the people feel an impulse for progress that comes both from within and without. The call from within springs from the desire of the people to maintain their freedom, move forward and attain the means to cope with the demands of the modern world and find an honourable place in the comity of nations.

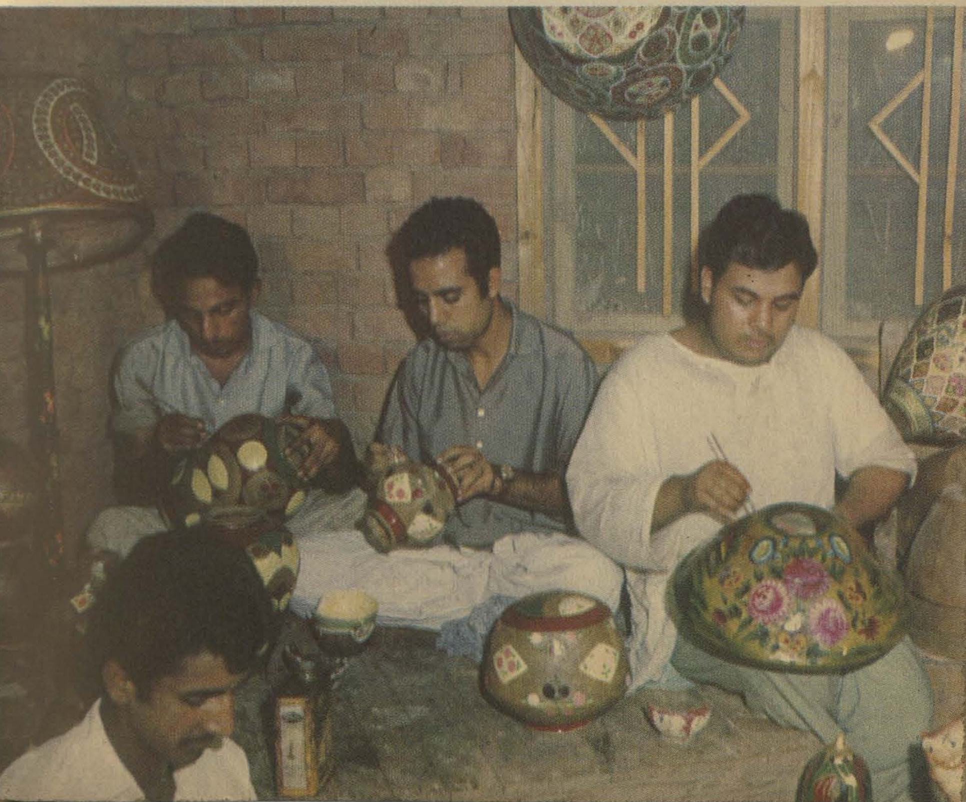
The influences from without are a consequence of modern means of communication and inherent requirements of industrialization and modern technology. They are constantly impinging on Pakistan. Coupled with the Pakistanis' own desire to make good, they describe the direction of the change that is taking place all the time.

The trek from the villages to the cities is the most outstanding change. Then, there is the explosion of expectations, people are now refusing to be content with their traditional lot. They want all the good things of life. Finally, there is the peculiar tendency in the cities towards similarity if not uniformity of social habits — largely imposed by the necessity of having to depend upon the same modes and results of production and the limited space at the disposal of a large number of people. While the native elements of the Pakistani culture provide the basic framework, there are new elements and ways of thought and action. The villages are undergoing a transformation through greater contact with cities and by the increasing interchange promoted by the processes of development and the modern means of communication. Within the cities, on the one hand, strains and traits from various subregions are meeting and fusing into one and, on the other, the process is



Women workers in a factory.

Multani craftsmen painting floral designs on camel skin shades and vases.





A student of the Art Institute, Dacca

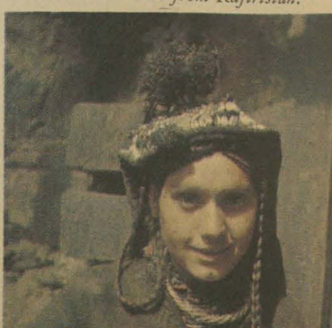
A little girl from Hunza.



Two girls from the Chittagong Hill Tracts.



A Girl from Kafiristan.



being enriched by the inrush of influences from abroad. Some of the latter are positive in character and can well harmonize with the Pakistani way of life and behaviour.

Demography: According to the latest decennial census of 1961, the population of Pakistan was just over 93.7 million. Since this census, some sample surveys have been made by different agencies. According to one survey conducted jointly by the Central Statistical Office and the Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, an annual growth rate of 2.6 per cent was found in both provinces in 1962. Since then the Planning Commission has been estimating the growth rate on this basis. The present annual growth rate is estimated at 2.7 per cent. The Ministry of Home Affairs, however, considers that the current growth rate is only 2.43 per cent. It is also the view of several experts that the 1961 census underestimated the size of the population. The Planning Commission has adopted the following estimates for various years, and more demographic details are given in Tables I-XVII.

	(millions)
1959-60	98.88
1960-61	101.45
1961-62	104.09
1962-63	106.79
1963-64	109.56
1964-65	112.41
1965-66	115.44
1966-67	118.56
1967-68	121.76
1968-69	125.00

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1]			
			Both Sexes	Male	Female	
1	**PAKISTAN[2]**	**3,65,529**	**9,37,20,613**	**4,93,08,645**	**4,44,11,968**	1
2	**EAST PAKISTAN**	**55,126**	**5,08,40,235**	**2,63,48,843**	**2,44,91,392**	2
3	**Rajshahi Division[3]**	**13,347[3]**	**1,18,50,089**	**61,25,732**	**57,24,357**	3
4	Dinajpur District	2,609	17,09,917	9,02,389	8,07,528	4
5	Rangpur District	3,704	37,96,043	19,70,253	18,25,790	5
6	Bogra District	1,502	15,74,105	8,05,939	7,68,166	6
7	Rajshahi District	3,654	28,10,964	14,39,459	13,71,505	7
8	Pabna District	1,877	19,59,060	10,07,692	9,51,368	8
9	**Khulna Division**	**12,810**	**1,00,66,900**	**52,19,770**	**48,47,130**	9
10	Kushtia District	1,371	11,66,262	6,07,198	5,59,064	10
11	Jessore District	2,547	21,90,151	11,40,202	10,49,949	11
12	Khulna District	4,652	24,48,720	12,84,086	11,64,634	12
13	Bakergonj District	4,240	42,61,767	21,88,284	20,73,483	13
14	**Dacca Division**	**11,937**	**1,52,93,596**	**79,48,297**	**73,45,299**	14
15	Mymensingh District	6,361	70,18,906	36,43,633	33,75,273	15
16	Dacca District	2,882	50,95,745	26,78,962	24,16,783	16
17	Faridpur District	2,694	31,78,945	16,25,702	15,53,243	17
18	**Chittagong Division**	**17,032**	**1,36,29,650**	**70,55,044**	**65,74,606**	18
19	Sylhet District	4,785	34,89,589	18,08,446	16,81,143	19
20	Comilla District	2,594	43,88,906	22,45,879	21,43,027	20
21	Noakhali District	1,855	23,83,145	12,07,964	11,75,181	21
22	Chittagong District	2,705	29,82,931	15,80,537	14,02,394	22
23	Chittagong Hill Tracts	5,093	3,85,079	2,12,218	1,72,861	23

Source: Census of Pakistan, Population 1961, Vol. I. This is also the source of Tables II to

1 Excludes non-Pakistanis, Figures for 1951 have been adjusted in view of inter-district transfers of certain areas.

2 Excluding Jammu and Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan, Junagadh, Manavadar and Pakistan enclaves in India.

3 The sum of the area figures of the districts of Rajshahi Division slightly disagrees with the Divisional figure due to rounding of decimals.

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	1951[1]				Increase/Decrease Population, 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
	Females per 1,000 males	Population							
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
1	**900**	**7,56,72,496**	**4,00,84,342**	**3,55,88,154**	**1,80,48,117**	**23.9**	**256**	**207**	1
2	**930**	**4,19,32,329**	**2,19,37,575**	**1,99,94,754**	**89,07,906**	**21.2**	**922**	**701**	2
3	**934**	**93,38,453**	**48,69,770**	**44,68,683**	**25,11,636**	**26.9**	**888**	**700**	3
4	895	13,54,432	7,20,985	6,33,447	3,55,485	26.2	655	519	4
5	927	29,16,476	15,33,208	13,83,268	8,79,567	30.2	1,025	787	5
6	953	12,78,185	6,60,006	6,18,179	2,95,920	23.2	1,048	851	6
7	953	22,05,057	11,34,701	10,70,356	6,05,907	27.5	769	603	7
9	944	15,84,303	8,20,870	7,63,433	3,74,757	23.7	1,044	844	8
9	**929**	**82,40,235**	**43,08,002**	**39,32,233**	**18,26,665**	**22.2**	**786**	**643**	9
10	921	8,84,157	4,61,998	4,22,159	2,82,105	31.9	851	645	10
11	921	16,38,387	8,57,756	7,80,631	5,51,764	33.7	860	643	11
12	907	20,75,506	10,84,977	9,90,529	3,73,214	18.0	526	446	12
13	948	36,42,185	19,03,271	17,38,914	6,19,582	17.0	1,005	859	13
14	**924**	**1,26,31,871**	**66,17,096**	**60,14,775**	**26,61,725**	**21.1**	**1,281**	**1,058**	14
15	926	57,84,745	30,36,051	27,48,694	12,34,161	21.3	1,103	909	15
16	902	40,72,781	21,44,237	19,28,544	10,22,964	25.1	1,768	1,413	16
17	955	27,74,345	14,36,808	13,37,537	4,04,600	14.6	1,180	1,030	17
18	**932**	**1,17,21,770**	**61,42,707**	**55,79,063**	**19,07,880**	**16.3**	**880**	**688**	18
19	930	30,59,367	15,98,472	14,60,895	4,30,222	14.1	729	639	19
20	954	37,92,200	19,66,219	18,25,981	5,96,706	15.7	1,693	1,462	20
21	973	20,71,144	10,85,149	9,85,995	3,12,001	15.1	1,285	1,117	21
22	887	25,11,785	13,39,410	11,72,375	4,71,146	18.8	1,103	929	22
23	815	2,87,274	1,53,457	1,33,817	97,805	34.0	76	56	23

1 Several figures for 1951 have been adjusted to cover transfers of areas or villages.

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1] Both Sexes	Male	Female	
24	**WEST PAKISTAN**	**3,10,403**	**4,28,80,378**	**2,29,59,802**	**1,99,20,576**	24
25	**Peshawar Division**	**28,153**	**63,72,467**	**33,16,377**	**30,56,090**	25
26	Hazara District	6,292	13,84,552	7,00,815	6,83,737	26
27	Mardan District	1,211	8,13,840	4,22,066	3,91,774	27
28	Peshawar District	1,646	12,13,468	6,51,558	5,61,910	28
29	Kohat District	3,473	6,27,795	3,21,769	3,06,026	29
30	Malakand Agency	12,344	15,36,766	8,01,689	7,35,077	30
31	Mohmand Agency	887	2,94,215	1,54,400	1,39,815	31
32	Khyber Agency	995	3,01,319	1,63,580	1,73,739	32
33	Kurram Agency	1,305	2,00,512	1,00,500	1,00,012	33
34	**Dera Ismail Khan Division**	**11,130**	**12,05,719**	**6,38,870**	**5,66,849**	34
35	Dera Ismail Khan District	4,723	3,82,746	2,05,239	1,77,507	35
36	Bannu District	2,034	4,28,061	2,24,421	2,03,640	36
37	North Waziristan Agency	1,817	1,59,470	79,000	80,470	37
38	South Waziristan Agency	2,556	2,35,442	1,30,210	1,05,232	38
39	**Rawalpindi Division**	**11,206**	**39,79,139**	**20,58,491**	**19,20,648**	39
40	Campbellpur District	4,148	7,66,813	3,89,574	3,77,239	40
41	Rawalpindi District	2,022	11,37,085	5,90,686	5,46,399	41
42	Jhelum District	2,772	7,49,229	3,79,948	3,69,281	42
43	Gujrat District	2,264	13,26,012	6,98,283	6,27,729	43
44	**Sargodha Division**	**17,095**	**59,76,939**	**31,91,144**	**27,85,795**	44
45	Sargodha District	4,775	14,67,621	7,83,988	6,83,633	45
46	Mianwali District	5,403	7,46,733	3,93,375	3,53,358	46
47	Lyallpur District	3,516	26,83,838	14,36,345	12,47,493	47
48	Jhang District	3,401	10,78,747	5,77,436	5,01,311	48
49	**Lahore Division**	**8,907**	**64,48,575**	**34,65,757**	**29,82,818**	49
50	Lahore District	2,216	24,79,687	13,55,492	11,24,195	50
51	Gujranwala District	2,312	12,91,886	6,92,596	5,99,290	51
52	Sheikhupura District	2,312	10,80,619	5,76,587	5,04,032	52
53	Sialkot District	2,067	15,96,383	8,41,082	7,55,301	53

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	Females per 1,000 males	1951[1] Population			Increase/Decrease Population, 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
24	**868**	**3,37,40,167**	**1,81,46,767**	**1,55,93,400**	**91,40,211**	**27.1**	**138**	**109**	24
25	**922**	**49,70,712**	**26,16,498**	**23,54,214**	**14,01,755**	**28.6**	**226**	**177**	25
26	976	12,80,563	6,74,175	6,06,388	1,03,989	8.1	220	203	6
27	928	6,29,734	3,30,485	2,99,249	1,84,106	29.2	672	519	27
28	862	9,30,082	4,99,754	4,30,328	2,83,386	30.5	737	553	28
29	951	4,32,637	2,26,957	2,05,680	1,95,158	45.1	181	125	29
30	917	11,93,354	6,16,460	5,76,894	3,43,412	28.8	124	97	30
31	906	1,29,300	73,615	55,685	1,64,915	127.1	332	146	31
32	842	2,16,622	1,05,572	1,11,050	84,697	39.1	303	218	32
33	995	1,58,420	89,480	68,940	42,092	26.6	154	125	33
34	**887**	**9,17,838**	**4,90,702**	**4,27,136**	**2,87,881**	**31.4**	**108**	**82**	34
35	865	3,23,860	1,74,035	1,49,825	58,886	18.2	81	69	35
36	907	3,29,959	1,76,649	1,53,310	98,102	29.7	210	162	36
37	1,019	1,28,235	65,850	62,385	31,235	24.4	88	71	37
38	808	1,35,784	74,168	61,616	99,658	73.4	92	53	38
39	**933**	**34,34,155**	**18,09,618**	**16,24,537**	**5,44,984**	**15.9**	**355**	**306**	39
40	968	6,89,719	3,58,710	3,31,009	77,094	11.2	185	166	40
41	925	9,07,794	4,86,689	4,21,105	2,29,291	25.3	562	449	41
42	972	6,78,900	3,49,260	3,29,640	70,329	10.4	270	245	42
43	899	11,57,742	6,14,959	5,42,783	1,68,270	14.5	586	511	43
44	**873**	**47,38,868**	**25,22,368**	**22,16,500**	**12,38,071**	**26.2**	**350**	**277**	44
45	872	11,61,387	6,20,098	5,41,289	3,06,234	26.4	307	243	45
46	898	5,49,549	2,89,424	2,60,125	1,97,184	35.9	138	102	46
47	869	21,52,401	11,41,938	10,10,463	5,31,437	24.7	763	612	47
48	868	8,75,531	4,70,908	4,04,623	2,03,216	23.2	317	257	48
49	**860**	**53,39,271**	**28,86,257**	**24,53,014**	**11,09,304**	**20.8**	**724**	**699**	49
50	829	18,95,061	10,38,878	8,56,183	5,84,626	30.9	1,119	855	50
51	865	10,46,933	5,63,821	4,83,112	2,44,953	23.4	559	493	51
52	874	9,23,081	4,94,011	4,29,070	1,57,538	17.1	467	399	52
53	898	14,74,196	7,89,547	6,84,649	1,22,187	8.3	772	713	53

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1] Both Sexes	Male	Female	
54	**Multan Division**	**24,826**	**66,02,924**	**35,37,760**	**30,65,164**	54
55	Dera Ghazi Khan District	9,359	7,76,620	4,17,574	3,59,046	55
56	Muzaffargarh District	5,613	9,89,878	5,30,512	4,59,366	56
57	Multan District	5,630	27,02,354	14,52,036	12,50,318	57
58	Montgomery District	4,224	21,34,072	11,37,638	9,96,434	58
59	**Bahawalpur Division**	**17,508**	**25,74,066**	**13,90,029**	**11,84,037**	59
60	Bahawalpur District	9,587	7,35,524	3,98,997	3,36,527	60
61	Bahawalpur District	3,428	8,22,827	4,39,369	3,83,458	61
62	Rahimyarkhan District	4,493	10,15,715	5,51,663	4,64,052	62
63	**Khairpur Division**	**20,293**	**31,33,712**	**17,08,607**	**14,25,105**	63
64	Jacobabad District	2,982	5,28,700	2,91,157	2,37,552	64
65	Sukkur District	5,531	8,36,867	4,56,408	3,80,459	65
66	Larkana District	2,866	6,04,460	3,24,731	2,79,729	66
67	Nawabshah District	2,896	6,91,539	3,77,511	3,14,028	67
68	Khairpur District	6,018	4,72,137	2,58,800	2,13,337	68
69	**Hyderabad Division**	**36,821**	**32,90,956**	**18,03,011**	**14,87,945**	69
70	Hyderabad District	4,969	12,85,711	7,10,798	5,74,913	70
71	Dadu District	7,342	4,85,122	2,65,896	2,19,226	71
72	Tharparkar District	13,435	7,28,300	3,96,350	3,31,950	72
73	Sanghar District	4,142	4,30,090	2,36,856	1,93,234	73
74	Thatta District	6,933	3,61,733	1,93,111	1,68,622	74
75	**Quetta Division**	**53,115**	**6,30,118**	**3,52,819**	**2,77,299**	75
76	Quetta-Pishni District	5,314	2,67,400	1,53,391	1,14,009	76
77	Sibi District	10,446	1,23,049	67,570	55,479	77
78	Loralai District	7,364	1,10,720	60,968	49,752	78
79	Zhob District	10,475	87,686	48,369	39,317	79
80	Chagai District	19,516	41,263	22,521	18,742	80
81	**Kalat Division**	**72,944**	**5,30,893**	**2,86,832**	**2,44,061**	81
82	Kalat District	30,931	3,41,420	1,86,706	1,54,714	82

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	1951[1]				Increase/Decrease Population, 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
	Females per 1,000 males	Population							
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
54	**866**	**53,01,907**	**28,41,706**	**24,60,201**	**13,01,017**	**24.5**	**266**	**214**	54
55	860	6,27,529	3,40,069	2,87,460	1,49,091	23.8	83	67	55
56	866	7,51,249	4,03,871	3,47,378	2,38,629	31.8	176	134	56
57	861	21,07,241	11,27,883	9,79,358	5,95,113	28.2	480	374	57
58	876	18,15,888	9,69,883	8,46,005	3,18,184	17.5	505	430	58
59	**852**	**18,22,501**	**9,89,905**	**8,32,596**	**7,51,565**	**41.2**	**147**	**104**	59
60	843	5,27,837	2,89,086	2,38,751	2,07,687	39.4	77	55	60
61	873	6,30,430	3,38,226	2,92,204	1,92,397	30.5	240	184	61
62	841	6,64,234	3,62,593	3,01,641	3,51,481	52.9	226	148	62
63	**834**	**24,68,654**	**13,56,229**	**11,12,425**	**6,65,058**	**26.9**	**154**	**122**	63
64	816	4,25,434	2,33,304	1,92,130	1,03,275	24.3	177	143	64
65	834	7,31,842	4,03,922	3,27,920	1,05,025	14.4	151	132	65
66	861	5,01,538	2,72,814	2,28,724	1,02,922	20.5	211	175	66
67	832	4,90,432	2,68,958	2,21,474	2,01,107	41.0	239	169	67
68	824	3,19,408	1,77,231	1,42,177	1,52,729	47.8	78	53	68
69	**825**	**25,25,744**	**13,88,063**	**11,37,681**	**7,65,212**	**30.3**	**89**	**69**	69
70	809	8,92,296	4,89,117	4,03,179	3,93,415	44.1	259	180	70
71	824	4,16,673	2,30,346	1,86,327	68,449	16.4	66	57	71
72	838	6,04,507	3,29,847	2,74,660	1,23,793	20.5	54	45	72
73	816	3,21,925	1,79,032	1,42,893	1,08,165	33.6	104	78	73
74	873	2,90,343	1,59,721	1,30,622	71,390	24.6	52	42	74
75	**786**	**5,14,109**	**2,90,173**	**2,23,936**	**1,16,009**	**22.6**	**12**	**10**	75
76	743	2,09,221	1,22,357	86,864	58,179	27.8	50	39	76
77	821	1,19,083	65,194	53,889	3,966	3.3	12	11	77
78	816	86,735	47,602	39,133	23,985	27.7	15	12	78
79	813	64,121	36,206	27,915	23,565	36.8	8	6	79
80	832	34,949	18,814	16,135	6,314	18.1	2	2	80
81	**851**	**4,96,713**	**2,65,833**	**2,30,880**	**34,180**	**6.9**	**7**	**7**	81
82	829	2,90,449	1,58,071	1,32,378	50,971	17.6	11	9	82

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	Locality	Area (sq. miles) 1961	1961 Population[1] Both Sexes	Male	Female	
83	Mekran District	23,460	1,46,990	77,596	69,394	83
84	Kharan District	18,553	42,483	22,530	19,953	84
85	**Karachi Division**	**8,405**	**21,34,870**	**12,10,105**	**9,24,765**	85
86	Karachi District	1,357	20,44,044	11,61,990	8,82,054	86
87	Lasbela District	7,048	90,826	48,115	42,711	87

TABLE II

Percentage Variation of Population 1951-61

(—)indicates decrease

Locality	Per cent Variation
EAST PAKISTAN	**21.2**
Rajshashi Division	**26.9**
Dinajpur District	26.3
Rangpur District	30.2
Bogra District	23.2
Rajshahi District	27.5
Pabna District	23.7
Khulna Division	**22.2**
Kushtia District	31.9
Jessore District	33.7
Khulna District	18.0
Bakerganj (Barisal) District	17.0
Dacca Division	**21.1**
Mymensingh District	21.3
Dacca District	25.1
Faridpur District	14.6
Chittagong Division	**16.3**
Sylhet District	14.1
Comilla District	15.7
Noakhali District	15.1
Chittagong District	18.8
Chittagong Hill Tracts District	34.1
WEST PAKISTAN	**27.1**
Peshawar Division	**28.6**
Hazara District	8.1
Mardan District	29.2
Peshawar District	30.5
Kohat District	45.1
Malakand Agency	28.8
Mohmand Agency	127.5
Khyber Agency	39.1
Kurram Agency	26.6

TABLE I

POPULATION BY SEX AND AREA (BY DISTRICT), 1951 AND 1961

(Number of persons)

	1951[1]				Increase/Decrease Population, 1951—1961		Persons per sq. mile		
	Females per 1,000 males	Population							
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number	Per cent	1961	1951	
83	894	1,51,691	78,660	73,031	(—)4,701	—3.1	6	6	83
84	886	54,573	29,102	25,471	(—)12,090	—22.2	2	3	84
85	**764**	**12,09,695**	**6,89,415**	**5,20,280**	**9,25,175**	**76.5**	**254**	**144**	**85**
86	759	11,33,926	6,49,629	4,84,297	9,10,118	80.3	1,506	836	86
87	888	75,769	39,786	35,983	15,057	19.9	13	11	87

TABLE II

Percentage Variation of Population 1951-61

(—)indicates decrease

Locality	Per cent Variation
Dera Ismail Khan Division	**31.4**
Dera Ismail Khan District	18.2
Bannu District	29.7
North Waziristan Agency	24.4
South Waziristan Agency	73.4
Rawalpindi Division	**15.9**
Campbellpur District	11.2
Rawalpindi District	25.3
Jhelum District	10.4
Gujrat District	14.5
Sargodha Division	**26.1**
Sargodha District	26.4
Mianwali District	35.9
Lyallpur District	24.7
Jhang District	23.2
Lahore Division	**20.8**
Lahore District	30.9

Locality	Per cent Variation
Gujranwala District	23.4
Sheikhupura District	17.1
Sialkot District	8.3
Multan Division	**24.5**
Dera Ghazi Khan District	23.8
Muzaffargarh District	31.8
Multan District	28.2
Montgomery District	17.5
Bahawalpur Division	**41.2**
Bahawalpur District	39.4
Bahawalnagar District	30.5
Rahimyar Khan District	52.9
Khairpur Division	**26.9**
Jacobabad District	24.3
Sukkur District	14.4
Larkana District	20.5
Nawabshah District	41.0
Khairpur District	47.8

TABLE II

Percentage Variation of Population 1951-61

(—)indicates decrease

Locality	Per cent Variation	Locality	Per cent Variation
Hyderabad Division	**30.3**	Zhob District	36.8
Hyderabad District	44.1	Chagai District	18.1
Dadu District	16.4		
Tharparkar District	20.5	**Kalat Division**	**6.9**
Sanghar District	33.6	Kalat District	17.6
Thatta District	24.6	Mekran District	(—) 3.1
		Kharan District	(—)22.2
Quetta Division	**22.6**		
Quetta-Pishin District	27.8	**Karachi Division**	**76.5**
Sibi District	3.3	Karachi District	80.3
Loralai District	27.7	Lasbela District	19.9

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE VARIATION IN POPULATION[1] BY AGE GROUP, 1951 AND 1961

Age Group	Pakistan		
	1951	1961	Percentage variation
All Ages[1]	**7,29,93,118**	**9,02,82,674**	**23.69**
0— 9	2,07,04,157	3,17,23,172	53.22
10—14	1,03,74,790	84,55,346	—18.50
15—19	79,23,375	74,38,928	— 6.11
20—24	59,92,428	68,96,425	15.09
25—29	53,90,229	70,42,659	33.66
30—44	1,19,91,257	1,49,44,826	24.63
45—59	69,92,672	83,94,497	20.05
60 & over	36,24,210	53,86,821	48.63
0—9+60 & over	2,43,28,367	3,71,09,993	52.54

1 Excluding non-Pakistanis and population of Agencies, Added and Special Areas of Frontier Regions of West Pakistan. Also excluding Jammu and Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan, Junagadh and Manavadar and Pakistan enclaves in India.

TABLE IV

DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS, PAKISTAN AND PROVINCES

Age Group	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
All Ages	**9,02,82,674**	**100**	**5,08,40,235**	**100**	**3,94,42,439**	**100**
Under 1 year	25,44,552	2.82	13,84,259	2.72	11,60,293	2.94
1— 4	1,31,77,469	14.60	78,79,977	15.50	52,97,492	13.43
5— 9	1,60,01,151	17.72	95,29,436	18.74	64,71,715	16.41
10—14	84,55,346	9.36	46,46,884	9.14	38,08,462	9.66
15—19	74,38,928	8.24	39,05,471	7.68	35,33,457	8.96
20—24	68,96,425	7.64	38,13,180	7.50	30,83,245	7.82
25—29	70,42,659	7.80	40,00,180	7.87	30,42,479	7.71
30—34	57,70,164	6.39	32,37,704	6.37	25,32,460	6.42
35—39	48,96,634	5.42	28,12,491	5.53	20,84,143	58.2
40—44	42,78,028	4.74	23,67,304	4.66	19,10,724	4.84
45—49	33,30,133	3.69	18,17,397	3.57	15,12,736	3.84
50—54	32,13,559	3.56	17,47,678	3.44	14,65,881	3.72
55—59	18,50,805	2.05	10,45,386	2.06	8,05,419	2.04
60 & over	53,86,821	5.97	26,52,888	5.22	27,33,933	6.93

Excluding non-Pakistanis and Population of Agencies, Added and Special Areas of Frontier Regions of West Pakistan.

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES BY AGE GROUP, 1951 AND 1961

Sex and Age Group	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
Total (Both Sexes)	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
0—9	28.36	35.14	29.47	36.97	26.88	32.78
10—14	14.21	9.37	12.63	9.14	16.35	9.66
15—19	10.86	8.24	9.96	7.68	12.06	8.96
20—24	8.21	7.64	8.29	7.50	8.11	7.82
25—44	23.81	24.35	25.62	24.42	21.38	24.26
45—59	9.58	9.30	9.61	9.07	9.54	9.59
60 & over	4.97	5.97	4.43	5.22	5.69	6.93
Total (Males)	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
0—9	27.30	34.10	28.35	35.86	25.92	31.92
10—14	14.65	9.91	13.47	9.91	16.20	9.91
15—19	10.32	8.08	9.40	7.29	11.52	9.05
20—24	7.93	7.28	7.81	6.92	8.10	7.72
25—44	24.51	24.39	25.86	24.70	22.73	24.01
45—59	10.18	9.87	10.44	9.77	9.84	10.01
60 & over	5.11	6.37	4.66	5.55	5.69	7.38
Total (Female)	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
0—9	29.57	36.29	30.69	38.16	28.00	33.78
10—14	13.72	8.76	11.70	8.32	16.54	9.36
15—19	11.46	8.42	10.58	8.10	12.68	8.85
20—24	8.52	8.04	8.81	8.12	8.11	7.93
25—44	23.03	24.31	25.35	24.13	19.80	24.55
45—59	8.90	8.66	8.70	8.32	9.19	9.12
60 & over	4.80	5.52	4.17	4.86	5.68	6.14

TABLE VI

GROWTH OF POPULATION BY SEX AND PROVINCES, 1951 — 1961

Locality	Sex	Population 1 1951	Population 1 1961	Percentage increase 1951-61
Pakistan	**Both Sexes**	**7,56,72,4962**	**9,37,20,613**	**23.9**
	Male	**4,00,84,342**	**4,93,08,645**	**23.0**
	Female	**3,55,88,154**	**4,44,11,968**	**24.8**
East Pakistan	Both sexes	4,19,32,329	5,08,40,235	21.2
	Male	2,19,37,575	2,63,48,843	20.1
	Female	1,99,94,754	2,44,91,392	22.5
West Pakistan	Both sexes	3,37,40,167	4,28,80,378	27.1
	Male	1,81,46,767	2,29,59,802	26.5
	Female	1,55,93,400	1,99,20,576	27.8

TABLE VII

GROWTH OF POPULATION, BY DECADES 1901 — 1961, PAKISTAN

Census Year	Population (000)	Percentage increase since last Census	Average annual rate
1901	4,55,04		
1911	5,09,37	8.4	0.813
1921	5,43,63	6.7	0.65
1931	5,91,46	8.8	0.85
1941	7,02,79	18.8	1.74
1951	7,56,72	8.0	0.74
1961	9,37,21	23.9	2.175

TABLE VIII

POPULATION OF CITIES BY SEX AND AREAS, 1951 AND 1961
(—) denotes decrease

Number of Persons

	City	Number of Persons—1961			
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	
1	**Karachi City (West Pakistan)**	**19,12,598**	**10,87,583**	**8,25,015**	1
	Municipal Corporation and Port Trust Areas.	14,47,419	8,13,918	6,33,501	
	Cantonment Area (Civil)	96,290	56,016	40,274	
	Other Cantonment Areas	68,013	45,386	22,627	
	Karachi Taluka (Urban)	3,00,876	1,72,263	1,28,613	
2	**Lahore City (West Pakistan)**	**12,96,477**	**7,23,199**	**5,73,278**	2
	Municipal Corporation	12,27,996	6,79,760	5,48,236	
	Cantonment	68,481	43,439	25,042	
3	**Dacca City (East Pakistan)**	**5,56,712**	**3,33,907**	**2,22,805**	3
	Municipality	3,62,006	2,13,356	1,48,650	
	Urban Areas	1,88,137	1,15,761	72,376	
	Cantonment	6,569	4,790	1,779	
4	**Hyderabad City (West Pakistan**	**4,34,537**	**2,43,523**	**1,91,014**	4
	Municipality	4,16,441	2,33,127	1,83,314	
	Cantonment	18,096	10,396	7,700	
5	**Lyallpur City (Municipality) (West Pakistan).**	**4,25,248**	**2,39,267**	**1,85,981**	5
6	**Chittagong City (East Pakistan)**	**3,64,205**	**2,37,752**	**1,26,453**	6
	Chittagong Municipality	1,74,384	1,21,675	52,709	
	Chittagong Cantonment	1,983	1,487	496	
	Urban Areas	1,87,838	1,14,590	73,248	
7	**Multan City (West Pakistan)**	**3,58,201**	**1,99,284**	**1,58,917**	7
	Municipality	3,40,399	1,88,390	1,52,009	
	Cantonment	17,802	10,894	6,908	
8	**Rawalpindi City (West Pakistan)**	**3,40,175**	**1,95,467**	**1,44,708**	8
	Municipality	1,97,370	1,08,661	88,709	
	Cantonment	1,42,805	86,806	55,999	

TABLE VIII

POPULATION OF CITIES BY SEX AND AREAS, 1951 AND 1961
(—) denotes decree

Number of Persons

	Number of Persons		1951	Approximate Area	Persons per sq mile		Females per 1,000 Males		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	(Sq. miles)	1961	1951	1961	1951	
1	**10,68,459**	**6,14,524**	**4,53,935**	**230**	**8,316**	**4,645**	**759**	**739**	1
	9,05,781	5,13,764	3,92,017	..	..	..	778	763	
	1,03,657	58,471	45,186	..	..	..	719	773	
	59,021	42,289	16,732	..	..	..	499	396	
	—	—	—	..	..	..	747	—	
2	**8,49,476**	**4,78,581**	**3,70,895**	**128**	**10,129**	**6,637**	**793**	**775**	2
	7,89,400	4,38,802	3,50,598	..	..	..	807	799	
	60,076	39,779	20,297	..	..	..	576	510	
3	**3,35,928**	**2,06,041**	**1,29,887**	**35**	**15,789**	**9,527**	**667**	**630**	3
	2,73,459	1,69,762	1,03,697	8	..	..	697	610	
	62,469	36,279	26,190	20	..	..	625	721	
	..	..	..	7	..	..	371	..	
4	**2,41,801**	**1,32,463**	**1,09,338**	**18**	**24,141**	**13,433**	**784**	**825**	4
	2,29,412	1,25,012	1,04,400	..	..	..	786	835	
	12,389	7,451	4,938	..	..	..	741	662	
5	**1,79,144**	**99,093**	**80,051**	**11**	**38,659**	**16,286**	**777**	**808**	5
6	**2,89,981**	**1,86,135**	**1,03,846**	**53**	**6,805**	**5,418**	**532**	**557**	6
	1,43,264	1,03,719	39,545	5	..	..	433	381	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	333	..	
	1,46,717	82,416	64,301	48	..	..	639	780	
7	**1,90,122**	**1,04,478**	**85,644**	**13**	**27,554**	**14,625**	**632**	**820**	7
	1,75,429	94,989	80,440	..	..	..	807	847	
	14,693	9,489	5,204	..	..	..	634	548	
8	**2,37,219**	**1,44,273**	**92,946**	**18**	**18,899**	**13,179**	**740**	**644**	8
	1,53,070	87,430	65,640	..	..	..	816	751	
	84,149	56,843	27,306	..	..	..	645	480	

TABLE VIII

POPULATION OF CITIES BY SEX AND AREAS, 1951 AND 1961

(—) denotes decrease

Number of Persons

	City	Number of Persons—1961			
		Both Sexes	Male	Female	
9	**Peshawar City (West Pakistan)**	**2,18,691**	**1,26,020**	**92,671**	9
	Municipality	1,66,273	90,852	75,421	
	Cantonment	46,925	30,918	16,007	
	Nishat Mills Area	806	652	154	
	University Town	4,687	3,598	1,098	
10	**Gujranwala City (Municipality) (West Pakistan).**	**1,96,154**	**1,06,404**	**89,750**	10
11	**Sialkot City (West Pakistan)**	**1,64,346**	**88,808**	**75,538**	11
	Municipality	1,43,889	75,993	67,896	
	Caontonment	20,457	12,815	7,642	
12	**Narayanganj City (East Pakistan)**	**1,62,054**	**1,01,774**	**60,280**	12
	Municipality	1,25,792	74,909	50,883	
	Industrial Area	36,262	26,865	9,397	
13	**Sargodha City (West Pakistan)**	**1,29,291**	**72,971**	**56,320**	13
	Municipality	83,141	45,735	37,406	
	Cantonment	46,150	27,236	18,914	
14	**Khulna City (East Pakistan)**	**1,27,970**	**81,908**	**46,062**	14
	Municipality	80,917	47,418	33,499	
	Industrial Area	47,053	34,490	12,563	
15	**Quetta City (West Pakistan)**	**1,06,633**	**64,973**	**41,660**	15
	Municipality	79,493	45,389	34,104	
	Cantonment	27,140	19,584	7,556	
16 16	**Sukkur City (Municipality) (West Pakistan).**	**1,03,216**	**56,313**	**46,903**	16

TABLE VIII

POPULATION OF CITIES BY SEX AND AREAS, 1951 AND 1961
(—) denotes decre

Number of Persons

	Number of Persons		1951	Approximate Area	Persons per sq mile		Females per 1,000 Males		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	(Sq. miles)	1961	1951	1961	1951	
9	**1,51,776**	**89,458**	**62,318**	**9**	**24,299**	**16,864**	**735**	**697**	9
	1,09,715	61,065	48,650	..	—	..	830	797	
	42,061	28,393	13,668	..	..	..	518	481	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	236	..	
	..	..	..	..	..	..	303	..	
10	**1,20,860**	**65,123**	**55,737**	**4**	**45,617**	**28,105**	**843**	**856**	10
11	**1,67,543**	**94,999**	**72,544**	**14**	**11,739**	**11,967**	**851**	**764**	11
	1,35,401	71,163	64,238	..	..	..	893	903	
	32,142	23,836	8,306	..	..	..	596	348	
12	**68,373**	**44,135**	**24,238**	**10**	**16,621**	**7,013**	**592**	**549**	12
	68,373	44,135	24,238	8	..	..	679	549	
	—	—	—	2	—	—	350	—	
13	**78,463**	**43,401**	**35,062**	**7**	**18,470**	**11,209**	**772**	**808**	13
	78,463	43,401	35,062	..	..	..	818	808	
	—	—	—	..	..	..	694	—	
14	**41,409**	**25,541**	**15,868**	**14**	**8,949**	**2,896**	**562**	**621**	14
	41,409	25,541	15,868	7	—	—	706	621	
	—	—	—	7	—	—	364	—	
15	**84,343**	**55,321**	**29,022**	**17**	**6,273**	**4,961**	**641**	**525**	15
	56,249	33,203	23,046	..	..	..	751	694	
	28,094	22,118	5,976	..	..	..	386	270	
16	**77,057**	**43,498**	**33,559**	**4**	**27,896**	**20,826**	**833**	**722**	16

TABLE IX

POPULATION BY MARITAL STATUS, AGE AND SEX, 1961

Number of Persons

	Locality, Sex and Age group	1961					
		Population	Never Married	Married	Widowed	Divorced	
	PAKISTAN						
1	**Both Sexes**	**9,02,82,674**	**4,70,29,203**	**3,75,06,278**	**54,85,459**	**2,61,734**	1
2	**Male**	**4,75,16,890**	**2,72,69,451**	**1,87,23,220**	**14,30,135**	**94,084**	2
3	0— 9	1,62,04,557	1,62,04,557	—	—	—	3
4	10—19	85,46,379	78,45,538	6,84,787	12,364	3,690	4
5	20—39	1,27,55,132	29,78,690	94,23,852	2,99,764	52,826	5
6	40—59	69,85,374	1,92,378	62,64,585	5,02,395	26,016	6
7	60 & over	30,25,448	48,288	23,49,996	6,15,612	11,552	7
8	**Female**	**4,27,65,781**	**1,97,59,752**	**1,87,83,058**	**40,55,324**	**1,67,650**	8
9	9— 9	1,55,18,615	1,55,18,615	—	—	—	9
10	10—19	73,47,895	38,20,305	34,54,159	28,366	45,065	10
11	20—39	1,18,50,750	3,56,299	1,08,42,531	5,73,929	77,991	11
12	40—59	56,87,151	50,646	37,88,209	18,14,858	33,438	12
13	60 & over	23,61,373	13,887	6,98,159	16,38,171	11,156	13
	EAST PAKISTAN						
14	**Both Sexes**	**5,08,40,235**	**2,60,41,362**	**2,13,47,683**	**32,75,270**	**1,75,920**	14
15	**Male**	**2,63,48,843**	**1,51,08,136**	**1,06,47,618**	**5,40,233**	**52,856**	15
16	9— 0	94,48,451	94,48,451	—	—	—	16
17	10—19	45,32,368	42,38,752	2,86,559	4,879	2,178	17
18	20—39	70,77,695	13,83,376	55,33,818	1,27,613	32,888	18
19	40—59	38,27,449	32,238	35,91,416	1,90,942	12,853	19
20	60 & over	14,62,880	5,310	12,35,825	2,16,799	4,937	20
21	**Female**	**2,44,91,392**	**1,09,33,226**	**1,07,00,065**	**27,35,037**	**1,23,064**	21
22	0— 9	93,45,221	93,45,221	—	—	—	22
23	10—19	40,19,987	15,36,949	24,21,417	20,779	40,842	23
24	20—39	67,85,860	46,490	62,58,461	4,25,058	55,851	24
25	40—59	31,50,316	3,590	18,13,188	13,12,431	21,117	25
26	60 & over	11,90,008	976	2,06,999	9,76,779	5,254	26
	WEST PAKISTAN						
27	**Both Sexes**	**3,94,42,439**	**2,09,87,841**	**1,61,58,595**	**22,10,189**	**85,814**	27

28	**Male**	**2,11,68,047**	**1,21,61,315**	**80,75,602**	**8,89,902**	**41,228**	28
29	0— 9	67,56,106	67,56,106	—	—	—	29
30	10—19	40,14,011	36,06,786	3,98,228	7,485	1,512	30
31	20—30	56,77,437	15,95,314	38,90,034	1,72,151	19,938	31
32	40—59	31,57,925	1,60,140	26,73,169	3,11,453	13,163	32
33	60 & over	15,62,568	42,969	11,14,171	3,98,813	6,615	33
34	**Female**	**1,82,74,392**	**88,26,526**	**80,82,993**	**13,20,287**	**44,586**	34
35	9— 9	61,73,394	61,73,394	—	—	—	35
36	10—19	33,27,908	22,83,356	10,32,742	7,587	4,223	36
37	20—39	50,64,890	3,09,809	45,84,070	1,48,871	22,140	37
38	40—59	25,36,835	47,056	19,75,021	5,02,437	12,321	38
39	60 & over	11,71,365	12,911	4,91,160	6,61,392	5,902	39

Table X

SEX RATIO BY AGE GROUP, PAKISTAN AND PROVINCES, 1961

group	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
All Ages	**111.1**	**107.7**	**115.8**
Under 1 year	101.3	99.9	103.0
1—4	100.3	97.4	104.9
5—9	108.4	104.5	114.6
10—14	125.6	127.7	122.6
15—19	106.6	96.9	118.5
20—24	100.6	91.8	112.9
25—29	103.9	100.2	109.0
30—34	110.1	109.4	110.7
35—39	121.3	124.2	117.5
40—44	115.6	112.6	119.5
45—49	126.2	126.7	125.5
50—54	123.3	118.3	129.6
55—59	133.9	140.5	125.7
60 & Over	128.1	122.9	133.4

TABLE XI

Percentage Distribution by Religions Group—1961

Religious Groups	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
All Religions	**100**	**100**	**100**
Muslims	88.09	80,43	97.17
Caste Hindus	4.90	8.63	0.48
Scheduled Caste	5.77	9.82	0.97
Christians	0.78	0.29	1.36
Buddhists	0.40	0.74	0.01
Others	0.06	0.09	s0.01

TABLE XII

MOTHER TONGUE

Languages	Number of Persons			Per cent of Total population		
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Total Population	**9,02,82,674**	**5,08,40,235**	**3,94,42,439**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Bengali	5,00,85,669	5,00,39,988	45,681	55.48	98.42	0.12
Punjabi	2,61,96,263	9,677	2,61,86,586	29.02	0.02	66.39
Pushto	33,43,363	3,507	33,39,856	3.70	0.01	8.47
Sindhi	49,70,219	6,223	49,63,996	5.51	0.01	12.59
Urdu	32,98,454	3,10,628	29,87,826	3.65	0.61	7.57
Baluchi	9,82,648	136	9,82,512	1.09	—	2.49
Brahui	3,65,772	215	3,65,557	0.41	—	0.93
Persian	28,082	1,704	26,378	0.03	—	0.07
Arabic	3,398	64	3,334	—	—	0.01
English	20,343	2,812	17,531	.022	0.01	.04
Other Languages	9,88,463	4,65,281	5,23,182	1.09	0.92	1.32

TABLE XIII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERATES BY SEX, PAKISTAN AND PROVINCES, 1961

Locality	Number of Literates			Per cent of total Population		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
PAKISTAN	**1,43,35,809**	**1,11,06,646**	**32,29,163**	**15.9**	**23.4**	**7.6**
East Pakistan	89,55,501	68,46,060	21,09,441	17.6	26.0	8.6
West Pakistan	53,80,308	42,60,586	11,19,722	13.6	20.1	6.1

TABLE XIV

LITERACY IN SPECIFIED AGE GROUPS, PAKISTAN AND PROVINCES, 1961

Age Group	Sex	Number of literates			Per cent of Population		
		Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
All Ages	**T**	**1,43,35,809**	**89,55,501**	**53,80,308**	**19.2**	**21.5**	**16.3**
(5 & over)	**M**	**1,11.06,646**	**68,46,060**	**42,60,586**	**28.0**	**31.5**	**23.9**
	F	**32,29,163**	**21,09,441**	**11,19,722**	**9.3**	**10.7**	**7.4**
5—9	T	17,07,568	12,06,126	5,01,442	10.7	12.7	7.8
	M	11,59,141	7,82,211	3,76,930	13.9	16.1	10.9
	F	5,48,427	4,23,915	1,24,512	7.1	9.1	4.1
10—14	T	25,96,699	15,24,798	10,71,901	30.7	32.8	28.2
	M	18,69,045	10,56,625	8,12,420	39.7	40.5	38.7
	F	7,27,654	4,68,173	2,59,481	19.4	23.0	15.2
15—19	T	20,30,236	10,81,072	9,49,164	27.3	27.7	26.9
	M	15,01,078	7,65,269	7,35,809	39.1	39.8	38.4
	F	5,29,158	3,15,803	2,13,355	14.7	15.9	13.2
20—24	T	16,86,756	9,66,891	7,19,865	24.5	25.4	23.4
	M	12,84,184	7,13,308	5,70,876	37.1	39.1	34.9
	F	4,02,572	2,53,583	1,48,989	11.7	12.8	10.3
25 and over	T	63,14,550	41,76,614	21,37,936	17.7	21.2	13.3
	M	52,93,198	35,28,647	17,64,551	27.4	33.5	20.1
	F	10,21,352	6,47,967	3,73,385	6.2	7.1	5.1

TABLE XV

NUMERICAL DISTRIBUTION OF LITERATES BY EDUCATIONAL LEVELS, 1961

Educational Levels	Number of Persons					
	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total literates	**1,11,06,646**	**32,29,163**	**68,46,060**	**21,09,441**	**42,60,586**	**11,19,722**
Without formal attainments	14,34,892	5,90,279	10,85,198	3,65,717	3,49,694	2,24,562
Below Primary School (Classes I to IV)	49,65,167	18,04,549	35,49,491	14,08,841	14,15,676	3,95,708
Primary, Middle and Secondary School (Classes V to IX)	38,04,071	7,35,361	18,90,710	3,18,658	19,13,361	4,16,703
Matriculation	6,60,000	68,986	2,35,458	11,717	4,24,542	57,269
Intermediate	1,36,710	18,452	49,818	2,974	86,892	15,478
Degree	73,838	8,231	26,893	1,176	46,945	7,055
Higher Degree	28,387	3,083	6,812	334	21,575	2,749
Oriental	3,581	222	1,680	24	1,901	198

TABLE XVI

LABOUR FORCE, 1961

	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Population	90,282,674	50,840,235	39,442,439
Agricultural Labour force	22,441,788	14,872,004	7,569,784
Non Agricultural (Civilian) labour force	7,764,193	2,570,953	5,193,240
Total Civilian labour force	30,205,981	17,442,957	12,763,024
Self-Supporting but not in Civilian labour force	28,353,521	14,603,606	13,749,915
Agricultural labour force as percentage of Civilian labour force	74.3	85.3	59.3
Civilian labour force as percentage of total population	33.5	34.3	32.4

TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

A. Some Population Parameters of Projected Population under Three Separate Fertility Assumptions, East Pakistan, July, 1, 1960 — July 1, 2000

Population parameter and fertility assumption	July 1								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Birth rates[1]					Per thousand				
Assumption I	49.51	50.49	52.99	54.09	53.80	53.45	53.58	54.07	—
Assumption II	49.51	50.49	48.26	45.24	41.41	42.78	43.12	42.62	—
Assumption III	49.51	44.79	41.90	37.99	32.42	33.67	33.75	32.84	—
Death rates[1]									
Assumption I	18.01	14.41	11.73	9.44	7.76	7.58	7.37	7.20	—
Assumption II	18.01	14.41	11.50	9.19	8.39	7.66	7.64	7.58	—
Assumption III	18.01	13.98	11.11	9.03	7.59	7.78	7.91	7.99	—
Rates of growth[2]					Per Cent				
Assumption I	3.15	3.61	4.13	4.46	4.60	4.59	4.62	4.69	—
Assumption II	3.15	3.61	3.68	3.60	3.30	3.51	3.55	3.50	—
Assumption III	3.15	3.08	3.08	2.90	2.48	2.59	2.58	2.48	—
Masculinity ratio					males per 100 females				
Assumption I	105.5	105.8	105.6	105.2	104.8	104.5	104.2	104.1	104.0
Assumption II	105.5	105.8	105.6	105.3	104.9	104.4	104.1	103.9	103.8
Assumption III	105.5	105.8	105.7	105.3	104.9	104.4	104.4	103.7	103.5

Source: Pakistan Institute of Development Economics: Population Projections for Pakistan. Monographs in the Economics of Development, No. 1f.

1 Yearly averages for five years beginning with the date in each column.

2 Compound yearly rates of growth of population per 100 persons in five years beginning with the date in each column.

TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

B. Some Population Parameters of Projected Population under Three Separate Fertility Assumptions, West Pakistan, July, 1, 1960 — July 1, 2000

Population parameter and fertility assumption	July 1								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Birth rates[1]					**Per thousand**				
Assumption I	48.43	47.15	47.57	48.48	48.91	48.91	48.97	49.34	—
Assumption II	48.43	47.15	43.26	40.35	37.32	38.97	39.69	39.49	—
Assumption III	48.43	41.78	37.43	33.68	29.23	30.85	31.27	30.67	—
Death rates									
Assumption I	17.81	14.72	12.31	10.35	9.06	8.80	8.62	8.44	—
Assumption II	17.81	14.72	12.02	9.94	8.71	8.65	8.66	8.61	—
Assumption III	17.81	14.22	11.52	9.63	8.53	8.61	8.80	8.80	8.86
Rates of growth[2]					**Per cent**				
Assumption I	3.06	3.24	3.53	3.81	3.98	4.01	4.04	4.09	—
Assumption II	3.06	3.24	3.12	3.04	2.86	3.03	3.10	3.09	—
Assumption III	3.06	2.76	2.59	2.40	2.07	2.22	2.25	2.18	—
Masculinity ratio					**males per 100 females**				
Assumption I	108.2	108.3	108.0	107.4	106.7	106.0	105.6	105.3	105.1
Assumption II	108.2	108.3	108.0	107.4	106.7	106.1	105.6	105.3	105.0
Assumption III	108.2	108.3	108.1	107.5	106.8	106.2	105.6	105.2	104.9

1 Yearly averages for five years beginning with the date in each column.

2 Compound yearly rates of growth of population per 100 persons in five years beginning with the date in each column.

TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

C. Projected Population of All Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1,1960—July 1, 20000

(*numbers are in* 000'*s*)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	97,720	113,948	134,939	163,027	200,009	247,254	305,767	378,718	470,546
Assumption II	97,720	113,948	134,939	159,696	188,328	219,903	258,704	305,141	359,413
Assumption III	97,720	113,667	131,667	151,582	172,984	193,810	218,515	246,471	276,874
Males									
Assumption I	50,455	58,881	69,652	83,963	102,746	126,728	156,476	193,618	240,421
Assumption II	50,455	58,881	69,652	82,261	96,764	112,714	132,359	155,915	183,478
Assumption III	50,455	58,881	67,981	78,107	88,906	99,346	111,770	125,858	141,197
Females									
Assumption I	47,265	55,067	65,287	79,064	97,263	120,525	149,291	185,100	230,125
Assumption II	47,265	55,067	65,287	77,437	91,564	107,189	126,345	149,226	175,935
Assumption III	47,265	55,067	63,686	73,475	84,078	94,464	106,745	120,613	135,676

TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

D. Projected Population of East Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1, 1960 — July 1, 2000

(numbers are in 000's)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population 1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	52,621	61,450	73,360	89,799	111,718	139,912	175,097	219,466	275,946
Assumption II	52,621	61,450..	73,360	87,877	104,899	123,833	147,160	175,192	208,121
Assumption III	52,621	61,450	71,522	83,231	96,007	108,526	123,317	140,088	158,377
Males									
Assumption I	27,016	31,858	37,680	46,048	57,179	71,482	89,360	111,934	140,698
Assumption II	27,016	31,585	37,680	45,067	53,692	63,254	75,061	89,273	105,985
Assumption III	27,016	31,585	36,744	42,696	49,149	55,426	62,865	71,315	80,539
Females									
Assumption I	25,605	29,865	35,680	43,751	54,539	68,430	85,737	107,532	135,248
Assumption II	25,605	29,865	35,680	42,810	51,207	60,579	72,099	85,919	102,136
Assumption III	25,605	29,865	34,778	40,535	46,858	53,100	60,452	68,773	77,838

TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

E. Projected Population of West Pakistan by Sex Under Three Separate Assumptions, July 1, 1960 — July 1, 2000

(numbers are in 000's)

Fertility assumption	Mid-year population 1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Both sexes									
Assumption I	45,099	52,498	61,579	73,228	88,291	107,342	130,670	159,252	194,600
Assumption II	45,099	52,498	61,579	71,821	83,429	96,070	111,544	129,949	151,292
Assumption III	45,099	52,498	60,145	68,351	76,977	85,284	95,198	106,383	118,497
Males									
Assumption I	23,439	27,296	31,927	37,915	45,567	55,246	67,116	81,684	99,723
Assumption II	23,439	27,296	31,972	37,194	43,072	49,460	57,298	66,642	77,493
Assumption III	23,439	27,296	31,237	35,411	39,757	43,920	48,905	54,543	60,658
Females									
Assumption I	21,660	25,202	29,607	35,313	42,724	52,096	63,554	77,568	94,877
Assumption II	21,660	25,202	29,607	34,627	40,357	46,610	54,246	63,307	73,799
Assumption III	21,660	25,202	28,908	32,940	37,220	41,364	46,293	51,840	57,839

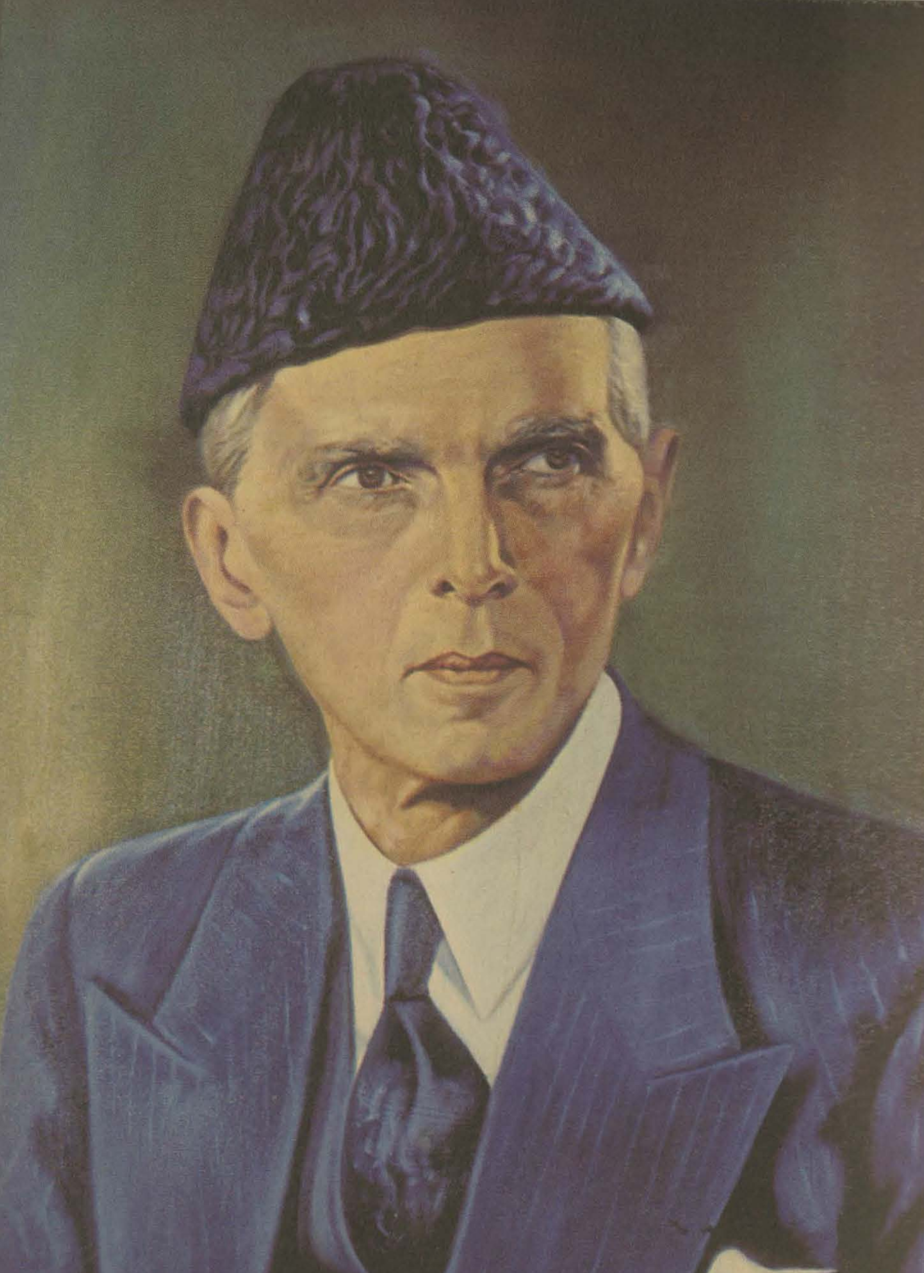
TABLE XVII

POPULATION PROJECTIONS

F. Projected Population of all Pakistan in Five-Year age Groups July 1, 1960 — July 1, 2000

Fertility Assumption III (*numbers are in* 000's

Age	Mid-year population								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
All ages	97,720	113,948	131,667	151,582	172,984	193,810	218,515	246,471	276,874
0—4	19,578	21,536	22,899	24,960	26,424	26,072	30,638	34,801	38,348
5—9	15,330	17,992	20,213	21,879	24,163	25,807	25,462	29,923	33,987
10—14	10,855	15,051	17,734	20,000	21,708	24,020	25,653	25,311	29,743
15—19	7,670	10,696	14,877	17,570	19,849	21,570	23,867	25,491	25,150
20—24	6,867	7,497	10,525	14,680	17,378	19,664	21,368	23,642	25,251
25—29	7,057	6,691	7,353	10,357	14,487	17,181	19,438	21,126	23,373
30—34	6,055	6,848	6,541	7,220	10,203	14,300	16,961	19,191	20,856
35—39	5,177	5,865	6,670	6,402	7,095	10,050	14,086	16,705	18,903
40—44	4,400	4,990	5,681	6,497	6,262	6,959	9,857	13,817	16,388
45—49	3,800	4,208	4,796	5,491	6,309	6,102	6,782	9,602	13,460
50—54	3,024	3,590	4,003	4,586	5,272	6,072	5,875	6,531	9,244
55—59	2,611	2,784	3,331	3,742	4,314	4,980	5,736	5,553	6,175
60—64	2,001	2,296	2,487	3,012	3,411	3,956	4,567	5,261	5,096
65—69	1,475	1,665	1,945	2,135	2,612	2,975	3,453	3,985	4,590
70—74	829	1,127	1,293	1,535	1,699	2,092	2,384	2,764	3,191
75—79	651	571	782	892	1,063	1,176	1,448	1,649	1,915
80—84	240	385	332	446	500	583	646	797	906
85+	129	157	207	177	235	249	291	321	397



Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah.

Historical Background

PAKISTAN came into being on August 14, 1947, but it has its roots in the remote past. As its establishment was the culmination of the struggle by Muslims of the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent for a separate homeland of their own, it may be said that its foundation was laid when Muhammad Bin Qasim subdued Sind in 711 A.D. as a reprisal against Sindhi pirates. The areas constituting Pakistan have, however, had a historical individuality of their own even before the advent of Islam.

Some of the earliest relics of Stone Age man in the Sub-continent are found in the Soan Valley of the Potwar region near Rawalpindi, with a probable antiquity of about 500,000 years. No human skeleton of such antiquity has yet been discovered in the area, but the crude stone implements recovered from the terraces of the Soan carry the saga of human toil and labour in this part of the world to interglacial period. These Stone Age men fashioned their implements in a sufficiently homogeneous way to justify their grouping in terms of a culture called the Soan Culture.

About 3,000 B.C., amidst the rugged windswept valleys and foot-hills of Baluchistan, small village communities developed and began to take the first hesitant steps towards civilization. Here we find a more continuous story of human activity, though still in the Stone Age. We find these prehistoric villagers established both as herdsmen and as farmers, settled in villages in the valleys or on the outskirts of the plains with their cattle and growing barley and other crops.

Careful excavations of the prehistoric mounds in these areas and the

classification of their contents, layer by layer, have grouped them into two main categories of Red-Ware Culture and Buff-Ware Culture. The former is popularly known as the Zhob culture of North Baluchistan, while the latter comprises the Quetta, Amri, Nal and Kulli cultures of Sind and South Baluchistan.

Some Amri-Nal villages or towns had stone walls and bastions for defence purposes, and their houses had stone foundations. At Nal an extensive cemetery of this culture consists of about 100 graves. An important feature of this composite culture is that at Amri and certain other sites it has been found below the very distinctive Indus Valley Culture. On the other hand, the steatite seal of Nal and the the copper implements and certain types of pot-decoration suggest a partial overlap between the two. It probably represents one of the local societies which constituted the environment for the growth of the Indus Valley Civilization.

The pre-historic site of Kot Diji in the Khairpur Division of West Pakistan has furnished information of high significance for the reconstruction of a connected story which pushes back the pre-history of Pakistan by a further 300 to 500 years, from about 2500 B.C. to at least 2,800 B.C. Evidence of a new cultural element of pre-Harappan date has been traced here.

When the primitive village communities in the Baluchistan area were still struggling against a difficult highland environment and a highly cultured people were trying to assert themselves at Kot Diji, one of the most well-developed urban civilizations of the ancient world flourished between the years 2500 and 1500 B.C., in the Indus Valley sites of Mohenjodaro and Harappa. These Indus Valley people possessed a high standard of art and craftsmanship and a well developed system of quasi-pictographic writing, which despite continuing effort, remains undeciphered. The imposing ruins of the beautifully planned Mohenjodaro and Harappa towns present clear evidence of the unity of a people living the same mode of life and using the same kind of tools. Indeed, the brick buildings of the common people, the public baths, the roads and covered drainage system suggest the picture of a people living happily in a welfare state.

In or about 1,500 B.C. the Aryans descended upon the Punjab and settled in the Sapta Sindhu, which signifies the Indus plain. They developed a pastoral society that grew into the Rigvedic Civilization. The Rigveda is replete with hymns praising the region of the Indus, which they describe as 'God-fashioned'. It is also clear that so long as the Sapta Sindhu remained the core of the Aryan Civilization, it remained free from the caste system. The caste institution and the ritual of complex sacrifices took shape in the Gangetic valley. There can be no doubt that the Indus Civilization contributed much to the development of the Aryan Civilization.

The discovery of the Gandhara Grave Culture in Dir and Swat will go a long way in throwing light on the dark period of Pakistan's cultural history between the end of the Indus Culture in 1,500 B.C. and the begin-

ning of the historic period under the Achaemenians in the sixth century B.C. Hindu mythology and Sanskrit literary traditions seem to attribute the destruction of the Indus civilization to the Aryans, but what really happened remains a mystery which may never be solved.

The Gandhara Grave Culture has opened up two periods, in the cultural heritage of Pakistan: one of the Bronze Age and another of the Iron Age. It is so named because it presents a peculiar pattern of living in hilly zones of the Gandhara region as evidenced in the graves. This culture is fundamentally different from the Indus culture and has little relation with the village culture of Baluchistan.

Stratigraphy as well as the artefacts recovered from this area suggest that the Aryans moved into this part of the world between 1,500 and 600 B.C.

In the sixth century B.C. the Buddha began his teaching, which later swept the Sub-continent from the Khyber Pass to the forests of Chittagong. It was toward the end of this century, too, that Darius I of Persia organized Sind and the Punjab as the twentieth satrapy of his empire. There are remarkable similarities between the organization of that great empire and the Maurya Empire of the third century B.C., while Kautilya's *Arthsastra* also shows a strong Persian influence. Alexander of Macedon, after defeating Darius III in 330 B.C., had also marched through the Sub-continent up to the river Beas, but Greek influence on the region appears to have been limited to contributing somehow to the establishment of the Maurya Empire.

The great empire that Asoka, the grandson of Chandragupta Maurya, built in the Sub-continent included only that part of the Indus basin which is now known as the northern Punjab. The rest of the areas astride the Indus were not subjugated by him, nor was the territory of East Pakistan. These areas, which now form a substantial part of Pakistan, were virtually independent from the time of the Guptas in the fourth century A.D. until the rise of the Delhi Sultanate in the thirteenth century.

Gandhara art, one of the most prized possessions of Pakistan, flourished for a period of 500 years (from the first to the fifth century A.D.) in the present valley of Peshawar and the adjacent hilly regions of Swat, Buner and Bajaur. This art represents a phase of the cultural renaissance of the region which in its artistic manifestation is distinct from the Mathura school. It was the product of a blending of Indian Buddhist and Graeco-Roman sculpture. Gandhara art in its early stages received the patronage of Kanishka, the great Kushan ruler, during whose reign the silk route ran through Peshawar and the Indus Valley, bringing great prosperity to the whole area.

The early history of East Pakistan is too shadowy to admit of a connected record. The historical value of the myths and legends embodied in ancient epic literature is not substantial.

The historians of Alexander refer to a people in the east as Gangaridal, who appear to be settled around the lower

Ganges. That Pundravardhana was the chief city of Bengal during Maurya rule is proved by the Brahmi script discovered from Mahasthan in 1931. The inscritpion bearing six lines of Asokan Brahmi contains an imperial order to distribute foodgrains from the government store-house to the famine-affected people of the area. A large number of punch-marked copper coins have also been discovered from Mahasthan. The archaeological evidence shows that the city flourished from the fourth to the second century B.C. The Chinese pilgrim, Yuan Chwang, visited the city some time during 639-645 A.D., and noticed a large stupa near the city which was said to have been built by Asoka himself over the relics of the Buddha. From numismatic evidence it appears that the Kushan rule was also extended to these regions, although corroborating testimony is still lacking.

With the establishment of the Gupta empire in the fourth century A.D., the northern part of Bengal came under their control. But the kingdom of Samattatta, which is indentified with the eastern part of East Pakistan, retained its autonomy in internal administration.

The foundation of the Pala dynasty about the middle of the eight century A.D., marks a new epoch in the history of East Pakistan. The history of the Gupta and Pala dynasties, which extends over four centuries, is highly interesting from political as well as cultural points of view. During this period, the area enjoyed a degree of prosperity and stable government unknown in its early annals. From literary sources we learn that the homeland of the Palas was Barendri. They professed Buddhism and established many famous monastries and stupas. One of the viharas founded by them has been excavated at Paharpur in the Rajshahi District. Their empire reached its zenith during the rule of Deva Pala (810-850 A.D.), who extended his frontiers to Assam and Kalianga.

During the latter half of the nineth century, the eastern part of Bengal fell into the hands of local dynasties, notably the Ghandras. Recently conducted excavations at Mainamati have brought up material evidence of this dynasty. The dwindling dynasties of the Ghandras and the Devas, who were Buddhists, survived until the Muslim conquest at the end of the twelfth century. The northern part of Bengal came under the sway of a new dynasty, the Senas, in the early eleventh century, but had to give way to Muslim forces. The eastern part of Bengal, however, remained independent under the Chandras.

It would thus appear that the historical process, as it evolved in the pre-Islamic era, in the regions forming East and West Pakistan clearly established their individuality and distinct entity.

The Muslim contact with Bengal goes back to the early centuries of the Hijra. The Arab geographers speak frequently of Bengal in connection with trade and commerce. The existence of commercial contacts between the traders of Bengal and Arabia in the Abbasid period is substantiated by the discovery of Abbasid coins at Paharpur and Mainamati. Islam spread in this area, largely as a result of the personal



Ivory paintings of Shahjahan and his empress, Mumtazmahal,
The "Lady of the Taj" — (National Museum — Karachi).

Golden earring and necklace excavated from Taxila (National Museum — Karachi).





A page from Kitab-
Khani (National M
Karachi).

example and missionary spirit of Muslim businessmen. The numerous stories and legends about Muslim saints coming by the sea route also testify to the magnitude of missionary activity.

The conquest of Bengal by Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khalji in the year 1202, during the rule of Shahabuddin Ghori, completely changed the social and religious pattern. The flight of the Hindu Raja before 18 horsemen without any resistence was an index of the political and military weakness of the regime. The Hindu rulers appeared to have surrounded themselves with a Brahmanical aristocracy and isolated themselves from the masses. This could be the only reason why the common people did not show any opposition to the conqueror. After its conquest by the Muslims, Bengal became a part of the Muslim world and maintained strong links with the rest of Islamic society, Overseas trade appears to have increased and as a result silver coinage became a regular feature in Bengal. In the fourteenth century, when the central government at Delhi disintegrated, an independent Sultanate was established by Haji Ilyas, who took the title of Sultan Shamsuddin Ilyas Shah. Sultan Firuz Shah Tughlaq twice attempted to reconquer Bengal, but neither attempt bore any fruit. The situation remained the same till Sher Shah Suri caputred Bengal in 1538.

The development of Bengali literature owes much to the patronage of the Muslim Sultans of Bengal. It was under them that the humanism of Islam was introduced into Bengali literature. The Persian language and its literature also developed in Bengal. A number of Persian classics were translated into Bengali. Valuable contributions were made to Arabic and Persian literature by a number of outstanding writers, poets and historians. The Sultans encouraged and promoted art and architecture. The Chota Sona Mosque in the Rajshahi District, which is a gem of architecture, and many other mosques and madrassahs scattered all over Bengal are monumental examples of their active patronage of architecture. Under the great Mughals, Muslim Bengal shared the efflorescence of Muslim culture with other parts of the Sub-continent.

The Arab conquest of Sind, by Muhammad bin Qasim in 711, gave the Muslims a firm foothold on the Subcontinent. The description of Hiun Tsang leaves no doubt that before Islam Sind was so strong and powerful that it successfully repelled the attack of Harsha. The social and economic restrictions inherent in the caste differentiations of Hindu society had, however, gradually sapped the inner vitality of the social system, and Sind fell without much resistance before the Muslim armies. During the rule of the Khalifa Hisham (A.D. 724-743), it appears that Arab rule was extended to the hilly regions of Kashmir and Kangra. During the reign of Mansur, (A.D. 754-775), the second khalifa of the Abbasid dynasty, Kandhar was conquered. He also made a determined effort to consolidate the power of Islam in the Sub-continent. According to Al-Idreesi, the famous city of Al-Mansurah was founded by him. The Khalifa Mehdi (A.D. 775-785) sent a naval expedition against Gujrat; and the Khalifa Harun al-Rashid (A.D. 786-809) was able to extend the frontier

of Sind on its western side. Ultimately after three centuries of Arab rule, the forces of disintegration set in and the Turks appeared on the scene.

The Arab conquest of Sind is a landmark in the history of Muslims in the Sub-continent; but the missionary had preceded the soldier, Islam had spread to South India before the Arab conquest of Sind. Being free from the disability imposed by the caste system, the egalitarian and democratic teachings of Islam enlisted a large number of adherents from the under-privileged sections of Hindu society, particularly the so-called untouchables, who saw a chance of being treated on a level with other human beings by becoming Muslims.

Muslim supremacy in Sind opened the way for new cultural contacts between Muslims and Hindus. These contacts were free and mutually beneficial. The Arabs themselves did not hesitate to learn from the Hindus in the fields of arithmetic, astronomy, medicine and philosophy. With the rise of the Abbasids, Arab interest in the Indian sciences widened. In 771 a party of Sindhi scholars visited Baghdad at the invitation of the Khalifa and took several books with them. One of these books, entitled *Siddhanta* was translated into Arabic with the help of an Arab mathematician, Ibrahim Fizari. Similarly a number of books on astronomy and medicine were also translated into Arabic. It was from the Hindus that the Arabs learned the use of the zero and made it known to the rest of the world.

The Muslims introduced historiography in the real sense of the term to this Sub-continent. Whatever historical literature existed before the arrival of the Muslims was mostly legendary in character. In a series of geographical works the Arabs described the topography and political and cultural geography of the Sub-continent, with particular reference to Sind and the coastal belt. The *Tarikh al-Hind wa al-Sind* by Muhammad Ali b. Hamid Kufi is the earliest history written in the Sub-continent. Its Arabic original is lost, and it is now available only in its Persian translation which is popularly known as the *Chach Nama*.

During the Sultanate period, exhaustive historical accounts of political, social and cultural life were written in the Persian language. Various branches of historiography developed, including world history and dynastic history. Of the latter category, the *Tabqat-i-Nasiri* and the *Tarikh-i-Firuz Shahi* are well known examples. Biographies of prominent saints and men of letters also became popular. During the Mughal period, the history of administration in general and revenue administration in particular received the attention of historians.

The Arab conquest's impact upon the religious life of Sind was far-reaching. From the accounts given by travellers as well as historians, it is clear that there were two communities — Buddhists and Hindus — living side by side in this region. The Buddhists, who were oppressed by their Hindu rulers, welcomed the newcomers, as did the lower and underprivileged strata of Hindu society. As a result of the example of relgious tolerance and humanitarian broadmindedness set by the new conquerous, there were im-



An interior view of the Sheesh Mahal, (Palace of Mirrors), Lahore Fort, built by Shahjahan in 1631-32.



Mosque of Khan Muhammad Mirdha, Dacca.

The Satgumbad (Seven Domed) Mosque, Dacca, built, it is believed, by the Mughàl Governor, Shaista Khan in 1680.



portant conversions, including a number of tribal chieftains. The Muslims established mosques and colleges which served as centres of educational and missionary activity. Muslim communities developed in different parts of West Pakistan, particularly in cities like Daibul, Mansurah, Nairun, Multan and Sehwan. In the course of centuries, Islam became the dominant religion of the whole area.

From the tenth century, the Turks became prominent in the political life of the Sub-continent. The Ghaznavids, a Turkish dynasty which rose in Afghanistan, succeeded the Arabs, and under the leadership of Sultan Mahmud, established Muslim rule in the northern part of the Sub-continent. During the rule of the later Ghaznavids, Lahore became the capital of the dynasty. But it was after Muhammad Ghori's conquest of Delhi in 1196 that Muslim rule was established in a vast area extending from the north-west to the Ganges valley. Later, under Alauddin Khalji, Muslim rule was for the first time extended to South India. The Khalji empire rose and fell during a brief period of about 30 years. The Khaljis were succeeded by the Tughlaqs who revived the empire and exercised effective control over it. After Muhammad bin Tughlaq, however, the Tughlaq dynasty continued in name only, as it was reduced to a phantom by the invasion of Timur the Lame towards the end of the fourteenth century. This disintegration of the Sultanate paved the way for the Mughal Empire.

The early Muslim rulers of Delhi kept the border open for Muslims, which resulted in the establishment of Muslim colonies in a number of important places. Fortified townships developed and gave birth to an intimate communal life. A sense of common danger strengthened the bonds of common interest. Every small township of these colonies became a flourishing social organization. It is quite natural that in these circumsances the Muslims should possess a feeling of unity and a sense of integration.

Islam's impact on the social and religious life of the Sub-continent is outstanding. "The followers of Islam", writes R.C. Mazumdar, an eminent historian of India, "settled in large numbers, but they did not merge themselves into the Hindu pattern. So, for the first time in Indian history two distinct but important communities and cultures stood face to face and India was permanently divided into two powerful units."[1]

The earliest phase of Muslim rule in the northern plains, generally referred to as the Sultanate (1206-1526), witnessed the rise and fall of five dynasties: the Slaves or Mamluka (1206-90), the Khaljis (1290-1320), the Tughlaqs (1320-1413), the Sayyids (1414-51), and the Lodhis (1451-1526). The history of this period resembles a stage play in which various dynasties appear and disappear in rapid succession. One is struck by the long life of the Mughal empire under a line of illustrious rulers, which, beginning with the Mughal conquest of Delhi and Agra in 1526, did not decline until the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, and was not finally

1. MAZUMDAR, R.C. : *Glimpses of Bengal in the Ninteenth Century*. Calcutta. 1960. p. 101.

extinguished until the uprising of 1857.

Between the Mughal empire and the Sultanate of Delhi there is, in spite of some resemblance, a brilliant and striking contrast. The Mughal dynasty founded by the Chughtai Timurid, Babar, had a longer life than all the five dynasties of the Sultanate period put together. It should, however, be noted that the Sultanate was the root and the Mughal empire the fruit of Muslim initiative and statesmanship in the Sub-continent. The Sultanate period was one of experiment and as such presented difficulties. The Mughal emperors were able to profit from the lessons of the past. They knew the difficulties and dangers which had beset their co-religionists in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The problems of government were no longer so formidable. The Hindu princes and the Mongol hordes of Chingis Khan had been the most dreaded enemies of almost every dynasty in the Sultanate period; and the Sultans, unless they possessed outstanding military skill and organizing ability, had to succumb to one or the other of these foes.

Hinduism and Islam stand poles apart in their attitudes to life. Islam as a religion is strongly monotheistic and insists on the equality of human beings before the law. Hinduism, on the other hand, is extremely flexible in its attitude towards God, and is founded on a caste system which divides society into privileged and underprivileged classes. Moreover, Hindus and Muslims were not willing to take the same view of history. Muslim achievements in the political social and economic fields were generally belittled by the Hindus. The benefits that accrued to the Sub-continent from the Muslim regime in the shape of law and order, an efficient system of justice, a network of communications, public works, promotion of economic life and industries with vastly increased employment opportunities and a widely diffused system of education and learning were ignored by the Hindu revivalists of the ninteenth century. They tended to forget the immense contribution the Muslims made to the well-being of the Sub-continent by opening up education to to the common people: the Muslims established thousands of Madrassahs and mosques which served as centres of learning and education. The revivalists also made light of the fact that the Muslims saved the Sub-continent from the Mongols who wreaked havoc in other parts of Asia and in Europe. Even Akbar's liberal policy towards the Hindus proved to be a failure. His compromising attitude which led him to evolve a composite religion, *the Din-i-Ilahi*, and other measures only sowed the seeds of rebellion among the Hindus. The rise of Aurangzeb and his orthodox policy was in part a reaction to the rising Hindu influence inside the government.

The Muslim culture that developed in the Sub-continent naturally had its roots in the teachings of Islam. For this reason, although the Muslim population of the Sub-continent absorbed layer upon layer of Arabs, Turks, Afghans, Iranians and others, they all formed part of a cohesive *millat* — a concept for which, in the absence of any English equivalent, some such phrase as religious commonweal or community would have to do. The indigenous convert broke all conscious connection with the previous religious

culture to which he had belonged. He could not be distinguished from the rest of Muslim society, except perhaps in that he was a little more enthusiastic about his new religion than the born Muslim. Since the early Muslim rulers of the Sub-continent were of Central Asian origin, many Central Asian cultural elements crept into Indian Muslim society. The Iranian influence was, of course, prominent throughout, particularly since Persian had been adopted as the court language of Muslim rule from the time of the Ghaznavids. The influence of Iran became still stronger under the Mughals, who encouraged Iranian immigration into the Sub-continent. In this manner the composite Muslim community of the Sub-continent developed various common Islamic features despite regional variations of language and culture. Thus, to take language itself as an example, despite regional diversity a strong influence of Arabic and Persian is noticeable in all languages of Pakistan. Then beyond all, the Islamic precepts of prayer, of man to God and man to man relationships are basically uniform. Thus a distinct nation came into being from the time Islam appeared in this part of the world.

K. M. Panikkar, a well known Indian writer, has expressed the point with some emphasis. "Islam", says Panikkar, "split Indian society into two sections from top to bottom, and what has come to be known in the phraseology of today as two separate nations came

The Quaid-i-Azam delivering his presidential address to the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan on August 14, 1947.



into being from the beginning. Two parallel societies were established on the same soil. At all steps they are different and hardly any social communication or intermingling of life existed between them."[1] This represents a Hindu view of the Muslims in the Sub-continent, which is historically correct in so far as the bulk of the two communities was concerned. While it is true that there was a common culture based on the Urdu and Persian languages and their literature, which developed under Muslim rule, this was largely limited to the nobility and the upper classes, except in the evolution of Urdu, the language of the camp (from the Turkish word *Orda*), which is a composite of a base of the Hindi *Khari Boli*, a rich vocaculary of words from Arabic, Persian, the Prakrits (dialects), Sanskrit and Turkish, and the Arabic script (also see the chapter on Literature).

The Emperor Aurangzeb died in 1707. Fifty years later, the representatives of the East India Company defeated the Mughal Viceroy of Bengal, the richest province of the Empire. The other centres of Muslim power crumbled one by one. Mysore disappeared as a Muslim state in 1799 when Tipu Sultan was killed in the battle of Seringapatam. Oudh was annexed in 1856. Hyderabad had already become a dependency of the East India Company.

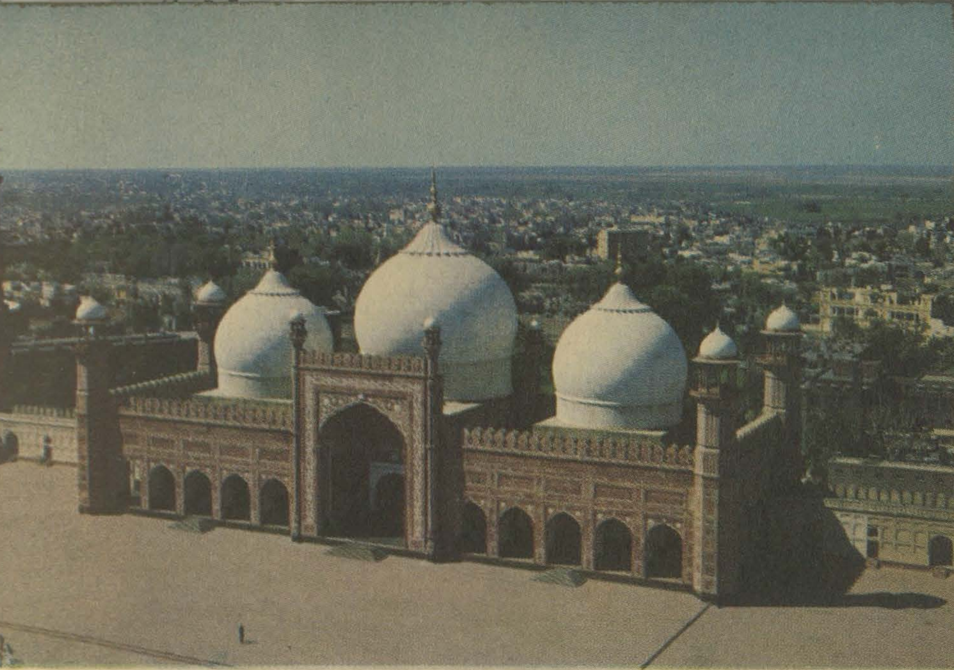
It is true that long before 1857, the Mughal Empire had lost a great deal of its authority. In the minds of the people, however, the titular Emperor was still a powerful symbol of Muslim rule. The defeat of the uprising of 1857 dealt a final blow to the Empire.

It was the fate of the Bengali Muslims to suffer more than their share of the consequence of the rise of British power, since it was they who ruled, either in Delhi or as quasi-independent nawabs in the then loosely held eastern provinces of the Mughal Empire. It was from the Muslims that the British had taken power, and the British were therefore anxious to ensure that the Muslims were not in a position to recapture their lost authority. Clive and others were particularly severe against the former rulers of the subcontinent, and the earlier phase of the East India Company's rule was virtually a campaign against the Muslim community.

The 'Permanent Settlement' of Lord Cornwallis elevated Hindu tax farmers to the position of landlords; and the government policy of political discrimination against Muslims, combined with the oppressive measures of Hindu landlords, resulted in economic ruin for the Muslim people. The Faraizi movement, under the leadership of Haji Shariatullah and his son Dudhu Miyan, roused the Muslims of Eastern Bengal to conscious self-assertion. They adhered to the strict letter of the Quran and organized themselves into a well-knit group, refusing to pay the illegal tax imposed by the Hindu Zamindars on poor Muslim tenants. This led to a direct clash between the Hindu zamindar and the Faraizi.

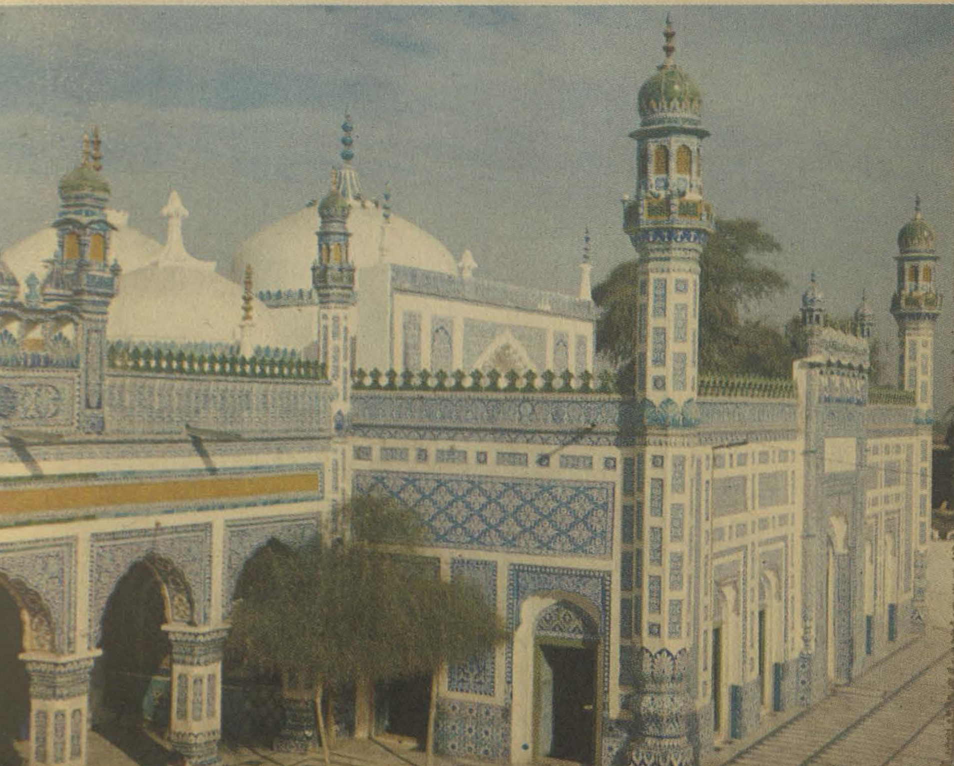
The Wahabi or Jihad movement,

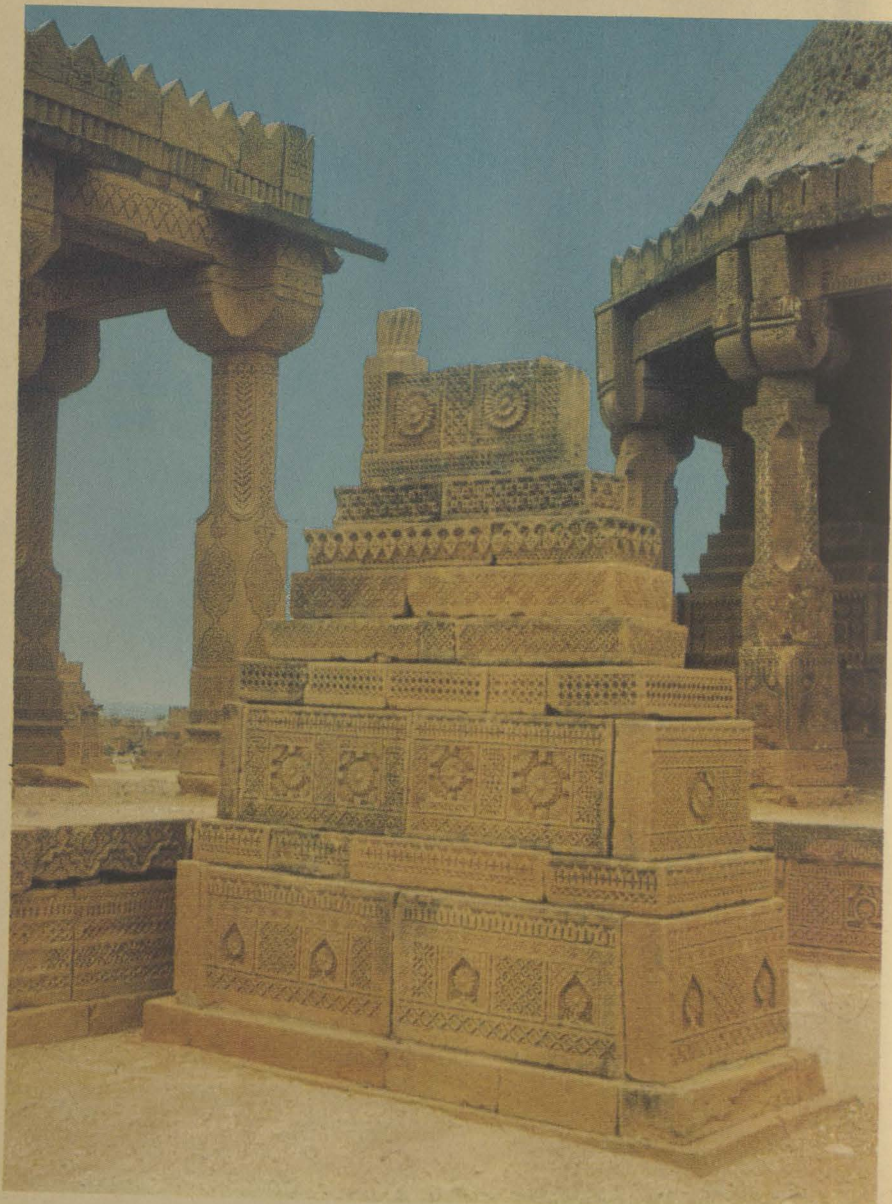
1. PANIKKAR, K.M. : *A study of Indian History*. 1964 edition. Asia Publishing House, London. p. 135.



Badshahi Masjid, Lahore, built by the Emperor Aurangzeb, 1673-74.

A view of the mausoleum and mosque of the Saint Shah Abdul Latif, at Bhitshah near Hyderabad, Sind, famous for its floral and colourful tile-work.





Chaukandi Tombs near Karachi showing exquisite floral and geometrical carvings in relief (17*th*-18*th century*).

under the leadership of Sayyid Ahmad Shaheed, created an unprecedented enthusiasm for the revival of Islam. When the call came to wage a War of Independence, Muslims from all corners of the land, particularly from the rural areas of Bengal, gathered to fight shoulder to shoulder for the liberation and revival of Muslim society. The Jihad Movement, which was initially directed against the Sikhs, suffered a military defeat at Balakot; but the spirit of resistance endured under the British regime.

Muslims were also aroused to regain their lost courage and sense of responsibility by the labours of Syed Ahmad Khan, the great educationist and reformer. His Aligarh Movement brought modern education to them, and provided them with the opportunity to secure administrative positions. His educational campaign revived the Muslim's confidence in himself and promoted a sense of political identity. Similar efforts were made by the Syed's great contemporary, Nawab Abdul Latif of Calcutta, who founded the Mohammadan Literary Association, which also aimed at a social and political renaissance for the Muslims. A new threat to the Muslims was emerging in the shape of Hindu revivalism. The Arya Samaj movement of Swami Dayanand openly avowed the aim of converting Muslims to Hinduism. This was a significant development, as hitherto Hindus had considered conversion incompatible with their religion.

As the nineteenth century proceeded to its close, political developments gathered pace, due largely to the growing sense of impatience with foreign rule and to Hindu-Muslim differences. In 1885 the Indian National Congress was founded with the help of A. O. Hume, a retired British officer of the Indian Civil Service, and with the approval of the Viceroy, Lord Dufferin. It aimed at a political fusion of all communities in India, but events were to prove the impracticability of such a proposition. As political activity increased, Muslims became increasingly disillusioned with the Congress. The partition of Bengal, which was largely based on administrative requirements, also had the effect of concentrating attention on the development of the rural areas of East Bengal and Assam, which had a predominently Muslim population and suffered neglect. The Hindu politicians, including important Indian Congress leaders, violently opposed it. The agitation against the parition of Bengal, and the controversial anti-Urdu circular issued by Sir Anthony Mcdonnell, Lieutenant Governor of the United Provinces, convinced Muslims of the need for protecting their interests. They demanded a system of separate Muslim representation, which was acceded to by the British Government and subsequently became part of the Morley-Minto Reforms. In December, 1906, Muslim leaders met in conference at Dacca, and Nawab Salimullah of Dacca moved a resolution for establishing a Muslim political organization. Thus the All-India Muslim League came into being. The British Government's decision to annul the partition of Bengal was announced in Delhi on December 12, 1911, at the Coronation Darbar. The Muslim reaction was bitter. The annulment made them distrust the British, and heralded a significant shift in the political outlook of the Muslim community.

When in the First World War, Turkey took the side of Germany, new dimensions were added to Muslim politics in India. As the sympathies of the Indian Muslims were with Turkey, the British tried to neutralize Muslim feeling by promising to respect the status of the Khalifa. At the end of the War, when the terms of the Treaty of Sevres were announced in 1920, the Muslims felt cheated. They decided that they would not co-operate with the government until the terms of the treaty were revised. This resulted in the non-co-peration resolution of the Calcutta Khilafat Conference in 1920.

The Hindus, under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi, lent support to the Khilafat Movement. Gandhi felt that this was the most opportune moment to bring about "Hindu-Muslim unity" under the Congress flag. He therefore led a nonco-operation movement against the British. The basis of co-co-operation between the Hindus and the Muslims, however, was negative and therefore did not last long. One community wanted to get rid of the British from India, and the other was struggling for the resoration of the Khilafat in Turkey. As a matter of fact, the end of the nonco-operation movement marks the beginning of a period of ever growing hostility between Hindus and Muslims. This is evidenced by the Hindus' repudiation of the principle of separate electorates to which the Congress and the Muslim League leaders had agreed in 1916 as part of the Lucknow Pact. About the same time, extremist Hindus started the *Shuddhi* and *Sangathan* movements with the aim of liquidating the Muslim entity through forcible conversions. The Muslims reacted by launching the *Tabligh* and *Tanzim* movements to organize themselves for defensive purposes and for missionary work. Communal riots broke out on a large scale in different parts of the Sub-continent.

One important reason for the growing hostility between the two communities was the fact that with the inauguration of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, power in the provinces had begun to be transferred to the elected representatives of the people. Under these Reforms some of the subjects had been transferred to the control of popular ministers, whose policies accentuated communal differences. Being in a minority in most provinces, the Muslims were naturally dissatisfied with the working of the new reforms; so that when the Muslim League met at Lahore in May 1924, under the presidentship of Mr. M. A. Jinnah, it demanded that Muslims should be given safeguards.

When the British Government appointed the Simon Commission in 1927 to recommend further constitutional changes, the Congress not only boycotted it but set up a committee, under Motilal Nehru, to draft a constitutional scheme of its own choice. The Simon Commission did not recommend adequate safeguards for the Muslims, and the Nehru Committee almost completely ignored their interests. The Nehru Report, which was adopted by the Congress, did not even agree to the principle of federation, insisting on a unitary form of government and claiming absolute power for the majority, which was obviously Hindu. The Muslims opposed the Nehru Report; and in 1929 an All-Parties Muslim Conference, meeting under the presidentship of the Agha Khan, demanded specific safe-

guards for Muslim interests.

In 1930 Mohammad Iqbal, addressing the annual session of the Muslim League at Allahabad, declared that the future of the Muslims lay in their political independence. To resolve the impasse, the British Government convened three Round Table Conferences of Indian leaders in London. The outcome was that the Congress position on safeguards for the Muslims became more intractable. The British Government later announced a Communal Award which was far short of Muslim demands. In 1935 the new Government of India Act was passed, which provided for complete autonomy in the provincial field. Even though the Congress and the League were both dissatisfied with the new Act, they decided to contest the elections, which were held under the new constitution in 1936-37. At these elections, the Congress achieved unexpected success and was able to form ministries in seven out of a total of 11 Indian provinces. The Congress governments followed certain policies which were detrimental to the Muslims. Large-scale riots, in which Muslims lost their lives in large numbers and their property was looted, also occurred during this period. In this situation the Muslim masses flocked to the Muslim League, which became their representative organization.

In 1939 came the Second World War. The Congress refused to support the war effort and its provincial ministries resigned. The resignation of the Congress ministries was welcomed by the Muslims. Congress rule had convinced them that the Congress was determined to undermine their religious and cultural entity and to deny them their political rights. It was no surprise, therefore, that the Muslims observed a day of deliverance to express their sense of relief at the end of Congress rule.

In March, 1940, a historic annual session of the Muslim League was held at Lahore. For several months before the session, a number of constitutional schems for safeguarding Muslim interests in an undivided India were considered by the League leaders. The consensus of opinion, however, was that after the experience of Congress rule no reliance could be placed on constitutional safeguards, and that the Muslims had therefore to ask for the establishment of a sovereign state of their own as had been foreshadowed in Iqbal's Presidential Address of 1930. Accordingly the following resolution was passed in this session:

> RESOLVED that it is the considered view of this Session of the All-India Muslim League that no constitutional plan would be workable in this country or acceptable to the Muslims unless it is designated on the following basic principle, viz., that geographically contiguous units are demarcated into regions which should be so constituted, with such territorial adjustments as may be necessary, that the areas in which the Muslims are numerically in a majority, as in the North Western and Eastern Zones of India, should be grouped to constitute independent states in which the constituent units shall be autonomous and sovereign.

This resolution electrified the Muslim masses all over the country, and the vast majority of them soon became

enthusiastic supporters of the demand for a separate Muslim homeland. Hindus opposed the Muslim demand, but the more the Hindus opposed it, the more convinced the Muslims became that Pakistan alone was the real answer to their problem.

In 1942 Sir Stafford Cripps brought a draft declaration about India's future which had been approved by the British Cabinet. The declaration showed that the British Government had also come to the conclusion that the overwhelming majority of Indian Muslims subscribed to the scheme for Pakistan. It provided that, at the end of the war, an elected Indian body would frame the constitution for an independent India and that for such provinces as were not prepared to accept the new constitution, the British Government would agree to a separate arrangement. This infuriated the Congress leaders, who later in the year launched a 'Quit India Movement' against the British. This was done at a time when it seemed that the war was going against the Allied Powers and that the Japanese were soon likely to oust the British from India. The Congress leaders were arrested and they remained in jail until May 1944.

The next important move made by the British Government was the Simla Conference of 1945. Its object was to persuade Indian leaders to associate themselves with the country's administration by joining the Viceroy's Executive Council. The proposal had, however, to be dropped because of the Muslim League and the Congress differences about the number of members to be appointed for each party.

In 1946 the British Government sent three Cabinet ministers — Lord Pethick Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps and Mr. A. V. Alexander — to India to have consultations with the Indian leaders about a future constitution. The ministers rejected the Pakistan scheme. Instead they devised a scheme under which there would be a centre to deal with three vital subjects — defence, foreign affairs and communications. Under the Centre, there were to be three Groups — Assam and Bengal; the Punjab, N.W.F.P., Sind and Baluchistan; and the remaining provinces—which were to deal jointly with such subjects as they thought appropriate. Only residuary subjects were to be dealt with by the provinces individually.

Even though the Congress leaders claimed to have accepted this three-tier scheme, their interpretation of the grouping clause did not accord with the intentions and statements of the framers of the scheme. The Muslim leaders had agreed to the scheme as they thought that the grouping of provinces would enable them to improve the economic lot of the Muslim majority areas, while Muslims elsewhere would also be able to live according to their own lights. But the Congress interpretation of the grouping clause was wholly unacceptable to the Muslim League.

The British Government once again invited the Indian leaders to settle their differences at a conference in London. However, in spite of the British declaration that the Congress interpretation of the grouping clause was mistaken, the Congress leaders did not agree to reconsider their position, and the constitutional crisis continued. Finally,



Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah taking the Oath of office as Governor-General of Pakistan on August 15, 1947.

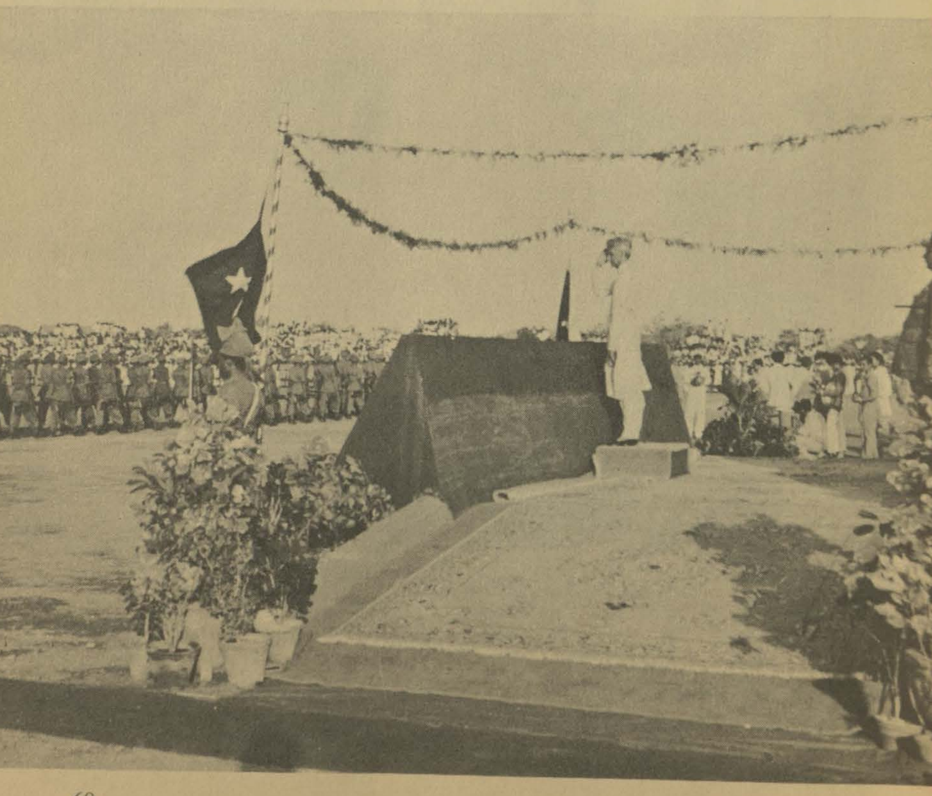
the communal massacres that erupted in Bengal in 1946 and spread to other parts of the Sub-continent made the position extremely critical.

In this situation, the British Government was left with no alternative to accepting the Muslim demand for a separate homeland. When the new

Governor-General, Lord Mountbatten, arrived in India he recommended an elaborate plan to divide the country. But since the British policy makers as well as the new Governor-General of India were not enthusiastic about the scheme for Pakistan, the new state was created in such a way that a large number of Muslim majority areas were given away to India.

So was it that on August 14 Iqbal's dream came true under the leadership of Jinnah. Pakistan became an independent country and took its place in the comity of nations.

The Quaid-i-Azam taking the salute at a parade of the Armed Forces at the Polo Ground, Karachi.



The Revolution : A Decade of Consolidation

THE YEAR 1967-68 marks the completion of a decade of Reforms and Progress in all spheres of Pakistan's national life. During these 10 years, the Revolution which started in October 1958, achieved consolidation and carried through its purposes and promises in a measure and with a speed rarely witnessed. The concrete achievements described in various chapters of this book stem from the zeal and earnestness imparted to national endeavour by the Revolution. The greatest contribution has been in terms of new ideas, new concepts and new attitudes, all intended to prepare the people to enter the age of Science and Technology while preserving the essentials of their traditions and the principles of their faith and idealogy.

The Revolution may be, and has often been, described as a change from the traditional, parliamentary system of democracy to a presidential system founded upon the pyramidal structure of Basic Democracies. Without entering into a theoretical discussion of the merits and demerits of parliamentary democracy and the cabinet system, it is a fact of history that the system had demonstrably failed to work in Pakistan and had broken down under the dual strain of inter-party strife on the one hand and the isolation of political parties from the people on the other. A coterie of eighty persons wielded all political or legislative powers making and unmaking cabinets at the Centre or in the provinces.

The Muslim League party, which had led the Pakistan movement, carried the main responsibility for governing the new country during its formative years. But soon after the departure of its two outstanding leaders, Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah and

Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan, it lost grip and was riven by internal dissension. Numerous splinter groups vied with each other to seize power; governments changed overnight and the administration was going to pieces. Already by 1954, the then Governor-General, Mr. Ghulam Mohammad, having dissolved the Constituent Assembly and dismissed the Government elected by it, was tempted to call upon the Commander-in-Chief of the Army, General Mohammad Ayub Khan, to step in and take over the administration. General Ayub refused, being averse, on principle, to the involvement of the armed forces in political matters. But four years later, having witnessed the inability of another hastily-assembled constitution-making body to do its duty or to run the government with any hope of improving matters, the same Commander-in-Chief was convinced that the time had come to check the rot and put matters right.

Martial law was declared on 7th October, 1958, and three weeks later, General Ayub assumed the office of President. Reforms followed in rapid succession, covering all aspects of national life. Everything began to change for the better and people extended a whole hearted welcome. They could see that the new regime meant business, had a sense of purpose and the will to act boldly and decisively. More, there was a method and a sense of direction in the manner the new regime attacked long-outstanding problems one by one.

The problems which faced the country at the time of the Revolution belonged, broadly speaking, to two different classes. First, there were those problems which ought to have been solved in the normal course, but which had been neglected for years. Among these were the refugee problem, smuggling and tax evasion, hoarding and blackmarketing, and general corruption in the Government and in society at large. In the second category came problems of wider scope and deeper implications. Solutions of these problems would involve institutional changes ranging over a wide field and would require much time.

Every year about one million tons of food-grains were smuggled out of the country. This was immediately stopped. In a single series of operations four and a half tons of gold were hauled up from the Arabian Sea. Speedy measures were taken to rehabilitate the jute trade of East Pakistan and since then the number of jute mills in East Pakistan has risen from three to 17, enabling the country to use a substantial proportion of this precious raw material in its own industry, thereby lessening its dependence on foreign buyers and industrial consumers.

An important feature of the revolutionary measures was their peaceful, painless character. Instead of strong-arm methods, peaceful persuasion and an appeal to the patriotism of the people were employed to secure results. Hoarded stocks of food-grains and other commodities were brought into the open market, bringing down prices quickly. A short period of amnesty was proclaimed for declarations of hidden wealth and payment of tax arrears which brought millions of rupees into the national exchequer.

The problem of refugee rehabilitation



President Ayub with the Bengali edition of his political autobiography, FRIENDS NOT MASTERS, relaxing in the garden of the Presidential House

which had dragged on for years past, was summarily tackled, so that within less than two years, the departments of the Government dealing with this problem became redundant and were disbanded. Housing programmes were undertaken and executed at top speed and the legal bottle-necks in the way of providing compensation to displaced persons were removed. Within

a period of about 18 months, nearly 400,000 claims were disposed of either through the allotment of evacuee properties or by cash payment.

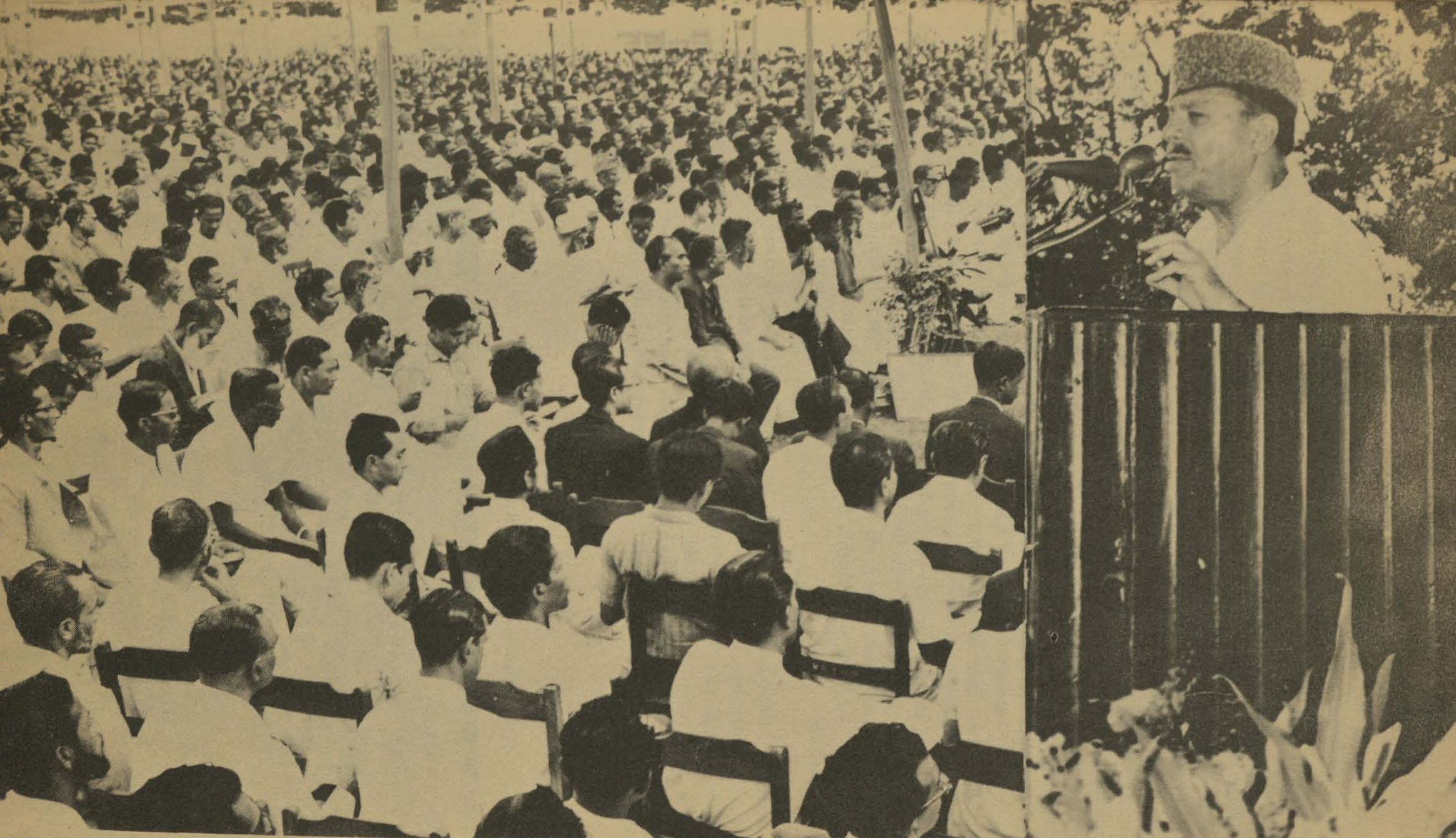
To make sure that the administration was freed of unprincipled officials, screening committees were appointed to scrutinize the records of Government employees. Special tribunals, set up under the Elective Bodies Disqualification Order and Public Offices Disqualification Order, investigated cases of corruption among politicians. A total of 84 officers of the all-Pakistan services, 46 Class I officers, 200 Class II officers and 1,300 Class III employees were either compulsorily retired or demoted. Many of the old class of politicians took the option of voluntarily retiring from public life under EBDO; others were tried and barred from further political activity until the end of 1966.

The same moderation was exercised in respect of the measures adopted to deal with long-standing problems, such as legal and constitutional reform, service and secretariat reorganization, educational reforms and agrarian reforms including abolition of the *jagirdari* system and the limitation of land holdings. Some 30 different enquiry commissions were appointed during the first four years of the Revolutionary regime to enquire into various problems and suggest remedial measures. Selective action has since been taken on the recommendations of these commissions, and their effects, specific as well as cumulative, can be seen in the substantial record of progress reflected in various chapters of this book.

One important feature, common to all these reforms, is the element of temperance and balance, their human sensibility and reluctance to cause undue hardship or unnecessary disturbance. Hence, the ease, efficiency and speed which characterized the implementation of these far-reaching reforms.

President Ayub, the author, leader and architect of the great transformation that has swept across the social, political and economic landscape of Pakistan during the past 10 years, is never tired of emphasizing that his regime's approach to all national problems is basically pragmatic and not doctrinnaire or partisan. All measures taken by him to promote his concept of the Revolution bear this out. Whether it was a question of reforming the agrarian system and ensuring the benefit of his labour to the tiller of the soil, or that of breaking the monopolies of politicians with vested interests, revolutionary zeal was never allowed to get the better of sound judgement and common sense.

Perhaps the period of 10 years is not long enough in which to measure the full significance of changes so radical and far reaching. Still, a growth rate of 8.3 per cent in Pakistan's income in 1967-68 is unprecedented among developing nations of today. What makes it even more significant is the fact that this was achieved within two years of the worst combination of disasters which could befall the country — war, drought over large areas in both provinces and a sudden, even if partial, drying up of foreign loans and investments. The resilience displayed in this achievement could



President Ayub addressing a public gathering at Dacca in 1968.

come only from one source, the will and determination of the peopl e and correct leadership.

The more deep-rooted institutional reforms will work their way into the economic and social structure of the country in the fullness of time. Of the more radical reforms, three may be specially mentioned. The land reforms, working in conjunction with the diverse measures of agricultural development and extension of the tilled area through the irrigation and reclamation projects — some of them indeed vast — have already made an impact on the economy of the country as is reflected in the increased output in the agriculture sector. The man behind the plough has been awakened and made aware of new possibilities and opportunities.

Similarly, the educational reforms in a vast country like Pakistan are not a matter which can be completed in just a few years. A large-scale widespread network of modern educational institutions is being built in the country. The balancing of modern, technological advances with the glorious traditions of Islamic faith and Islamic character is broadly what has been attempted in the educational reforms. The product of this reformed system, who will live in a mixed economy, partly urban and industrial and partly rural and agrarian, will possess a new outlook enabling Pakistan's men and women to carry on the ideas and traditions which are being formulated now.

Last of all, there are the constitutional reforms which have their origin in a political philosophy of which the Basic Democracies system is the practical expression. The protagonists of this new system have repeatedly affirmed their loyalty and attachment to the ideals of democracy and freedom and they have given proof of their loyalty. But just as they have insisted on imparting a new meaning and a new shape to the practice of democracy, they have also attempted to provide a new meaning to the concept of freedom. The stress is on realism, on the exercise of the right of the people

President Ayub addressing a public meeting on Independence Day at the Army Stadium Rawalpindi.



to participate in the actual functioning of government on the largest possible scale, and on the development and promotion of the positive content of freedom.

Taking a closer view, the extension of freedom in Pakistan is taking place not only in the long-term perspective of expansion of education and scientific activities, but also in a more immediate context. The President himself has taken pains on numerous occasions to address and participate in meetings of scholars, writers and the intellectual class generally. There is obvious encouragement from the Government, but without any vestige of control by any Government agency, for free discussion and debate on important national issues.

In all these diverse ways it has been the consistent endeavour of the Revolutionary regime to further the free flow of ideas and opinions on matters of immediate policy and of long-term planning. This is the real spirit of democracy and freedom for which diverse platforms and channels of expressions are being created either formally, in the shape of constitutional and political institutions, or less formally by way of gatherings of thinking people and other opportunities for the exchange of views.



East Pakistan Delegates to the Basic democracies convention being embraced by delegates from West Pakistan at the Lahore Airport on March 24, 1968.

Basic Democracy

On assumption of office in 1958, President Ayub Khan declared that the aim of his regime was to establish a truly democratic system in the country suited to the needs and genius of the people.

The last ten years have witnessed the unveiling of the meaning of this declaration in the shape of a pyramidal structure of governmental institutions democratically constituted, ranging from the Union Council in the remotest village of Pakistan to the National Assembly which makes laws for the whole country. The system has acquired the name of Basic Democracy, or rather Basic Democracies, to emphasize its composite character which embraces successive layers of democratic units with well-defined functions for each at its respective level.

The system has attracted much comment, both inside and outside the country, and a whole volume of literature has grown round it, to interpret and adumberate it as well as to assess its scope and potential, to judge its working and measure its accomplishments. The President has repeatedly taken the rostrum to explain his thoughts on the subject and how he expects it to work. It is nevertheless important to note that unlike several other systems of political philosophy in vogue in our times, Basic Democracy does not start with an ideological or theoretical blueprint laid out in advance to which all future progress must conform. This is a concept in the making which has been from the first day launched into the field of popular experience and experimentation, to work out its own destiny and fulfil it in its own manner.

One fundamental premise on which

the thesis of Basic Democracy is based is that the system of representative government initiated and bequeathed to Pakistan by its British rulers was borrowed from an alien tradition and so patterned that the people of this country could not work it because it neither reflected their traditions nor suited their ideology. The failure of this system was amply demonstrated during the 10 years of its attempted working from 1948 to 1958, when governments changed almost overnight and were beset with too may problems relating to their continuance in office, their own internecine wrangles and scramble for power, to be able to attend to the problems of the country and its people. This failure was not fortuitous or incidental but followed a consistent pattern, rooted as it was in the unsuitability of the system as a whole. All through the world, since the end of World War II after which the erstwhile dependent countries acquired freedom one by one, the political systems modelled on Western parliamentary democracy have crumbled in one country after another. At the same time, it is quite clear that for the newly-independent countries emerging from the shell of alien political sovereignty, there is no way to organize their governments and run their affairs except in a democractic form suited to their conditions.

Starting with this premise, Basic Democracy takes the position that to be able to exercise their new-found freedom and power, effectively and purposefully, the people must be organized in units based on traditional patterns of association so as to ensure maximum correspondence and communication between the members of each constituency or unit as well as the maximum amount of common interest. Further, as these circles of association expand — which they must, being contained within the same over-all nationhood they must at each stage have well-defined, clear-cut functions before them for which the people of a given area have combined together, through their representatives elected on the basis of Universal Adult franchise, to join in common endeavour.

Structure: Based on these considerations, the first Basic Democracies Order was promulgated by the President on 27th October, 1959. By this order, and subsequent amending legislation, the whole country was divided into 80,000 wards of roughly 1,100 population which became primary units of Basic Democracy. The number has since been raised, for the purpose of the next general elections to 120,000. Each ward elects one representative to a body called the Union Council in the villages, Town Committee in towns of less than 14,000 population and Union Committee in those of larger population. These elections are held on the basis of each adult member of the community exercising his right of vote directly and in secrecy. Each council or committee has an elected chairman who not only presides over its meetings but also acts as the executive head of the committee.

Thana/Tehsil Council: After the union councils and committees, there are three other tiers of Basic Democracies, corresponding to the revenue administration units in each province. Thus, the next tier is the Thana Council in East Pakistan and the Tehsil Council

in West Pakistan. These councils are presided over by the administrative head of a thana or tehsil, namely, the Sub-divisional Officer or the Tehsildar as the case may be. They also contain certain officials in addition to the elected members, though it is provided that the strength of official members will not exceed that of the elected members.

Official Presence: The induction of the official presence at this and subsequent levels of Basic Democracies, namely, municipal, district and divisional councils both in executive and deliberative forums, has been considered necessary on the ground that they possess the necessary information and factual data about the work entrusted to these bodies, as well as expert knowledge and practical training necessary for successful discharge of their functions in the service of the community. The aim of associating the people with the administration and bringing their will and power, their collective wisdom and knowledge of local detail to bear on the problems of administration and amelioration of living conditions which

Weekly meeting of the village co-operative society, PARD, Comilla, East Pakistan.





The Governor of East Pakistan, Mr. Abdul Monem Khan, delivering his inaugural speech at the National Basic Democracies Convention on March 25, 1968.

finally flowers into the national development effort is thus amply achieved by this amalgamation of official and non-official or elected components of the democratic institutions in cities, districts and divisions.

In cities of more than 14,000 population where municipal bodies operate, the chairmen of all union committees in the city limits automatically become members of the municipal committee or corporation. The previous limit on the number of elected members of these bodies has been abolished in both East and West Pakistan. The chairman is, however, officially appointed, though an elected vice-chairman is also provided for.

The two remaining tiers of Basic Democracy are district councils and divisional councils, both headed by officers who are administrative heads of their respective districts or divisions, namely, Collectors or the Commissioners. There is provision for an official element in these bodies also which must not exceed 50 per cent of the total membership.

The structure and composition of the four-tier system is summarized in the following chart:

Composition of Basic Democracies

1. *Divisional Council*:

	East Pakistan	4	
	West Pakistan	12	Total 16
Chairman	Div. Commissioner		
Members	Official 50 per cent or less		
	Elected 50 per cent or more		

A. Rural Areas

2. *District Council*:

	East Pakistan	17	
	West Pakistan	46	
	Azad Kashmir	3	Total 66
Chairman	Collector/Deputy Commissioner		
Vice-Chairman	Elected by Members		
Members	Official 50 per cent or less		
	Elected 50 per cent or more		

3. *Thana/Tehsil Council*:

	East Pakistan	403	
	West Pakistan	203	
	Azad Kashmir	11	Total 617
Chairman	Sub-Divisional Officer/SDM		
Vice-Chairman	Circle Officer (Development)/Development Officer		
Members	Official 50 per cent or less		
	Elected Chairmen of Union Councils/ Committees and Town Committees		

4. (a) *Union Council*:

	East Pakistan	4,032	
	West Pakistan	3,302	
	Azad Kashmir and Special Areas	243	Total 7,577

(b) *Town Committee*

	East Pakistan	38	
	West Pakistan	215	
	Azad Kashmir and Special Areas	8	Total 261
Chairman	Elected by Members		
Members	Elected on the basis of one representative for approximately 1,000/ 1,200 population		

B. Urban Areas

Municipal Committees:

	East Pakistan	=	29	
	West Pakistan	=	87	
	Azad Kashmir	=	2	Total 118
Chairman:	Official			
Vice-Chairman:	Elected			
Members:	Chairmen of Union Committees and officials			

Union Committees:

	East Pakistan	=	216	
	West Pakistan	=	810 (including cantonments)	Total 1026
Chairman:	All elected as in the			
Members:	case of the Union Council			

Amendments: The original Basic Democracies Order of 1959 also postulated a certain quota for nominated members for various bodies at different levels, but this was later done away with. Provision, however, exists for representation of special interests such as women, minorities and social workers, in municipal committees.

The original term of the first Basic Democracies constituted in 1960 was to expire in February 1965 but was extended to enable them to complete the elections to the National and Provincial Assemblies brought into being by the Constitution of 1962. The existing bodies of Basic Democracies were elected in the autumn of 1964 and will hold their term upto 1969 when fresh elections will be held in accordance with the law passed by the National Assembly at Dacca in 1967 which has raised the number of electoral wards in the whole country from 80,000 to 120,000. Fresh electoral rolls and delimitation of constituencies have been completed by the Election Commission, and the next elections of Basic Democrats are scheduled to commence on 21st September, 1969.

Other important amendments which have meanwhile been carried out in the system of election and composition of various tiers of Basic Democracies include the following:

(a) Abolition of the limit on the number of union committees in any municipal area or cantonment board and 100 per cent

representation of union committees through the chairmen in municipal bodies.

(b) Every voter on the electoral rolls is now entitled to stand for election to the district council and divisional council, irrespective of whether he is a Basic Democrat or not.

(c) The electoral college for elections to the district council consists of the chairmen of union councils and town committees who may also be members of the divisional council, provided that the same person shall not hold dual membership of both the district and divisional councils. Members of the divisional council are elected by members of municipal committees and cantonment boards in a division, on the one hand, and of district councils, on the other.

(d) District and divisional councils have been vested with powers to remove any chairman of a union committee or equivalent body as well as members of other local bodies on specific grounds.

(e) Special representation has been ensured for tribal areas making the members of all union councils and union town committees in these areas members of the electoral college for district and divisional councils, instead of only the chairman of these bodies as is the case with other areas.

Functions: As local bodies and units of administration in their respective areas of jurisdiction, the four tiers of Basic Democracies plus the municipal committees exercise financial and administrative powers and enhanced responsibilities, particularly in the field of economic and social development. This arrangement is derived directly from the indigenous tradition of *jirgas* and *panchayats* which is ingrained in the social consciousness of the people and has been provided with a modern, stream-lined shape and form and fitted into the machinery of modern government.

Of the four tiers mentioned above, the first and third, that is, the union council/committee and the district council have direct executive functions, while the tehsil or thana council at the lower rung and the divisional council at the highest level are mainly co-ordinating bodies. Municipal bodies retain their traditional functions and status with suitable modifications brought about in the course of experience.

The list of functions assigned to union/town committees and union councils includes power of taxation and disbursement for development purposes, administration of the Family Laws and Conciliation Courts Ordinances. The chairmen of these bodies are also authorized to bring to the notice of the police authorities any suspicious characters and untoward happenings in the areas under their jurisdiction and to co-operate in the maintenance of law and order, in the collection of revenue and in the carrying out of government policies generally with the active association of the people. The responsibilities include maintenance of public highways, preservation of plantations, management of common village lands and burial

grounds, sanitation of the villages and localities under their charge, arrangements for drinking water supply and promotion of agricultural and social development.

Thana/tehsil councils have the responsibility of co-ordinating the activities of union councils and town committees in their jurisdiction and also undertaking those functions which the district councils may entrust to them. The functions of municipal committees include all activities directed towards improvement of public health, provision of pure water and drainage facilities and preparation and execution of master plans for housing and town planning. They are also responsible for co-ordinating activities of the union committees.

Compulsory functions of district councils include provision and maintenance of hospitals and dispensaries, public roads, public ferries, cattle ponds and rest houses, and also regulating traffic and promotion and adoption of improved methods of cultivation. There are nearly 70 optional functions which concern secondary education, social and economic welfare and aspects of public health and public works.

The district councils draw up and execute development schemes and co-ordinate the activities of the first and second tier institutions within the district.

In West Pakistan, the district councils also formulate and recommend to the divisional councils and other authorities development schemes of local importance to the district and review the progress of various branches of administration in the district.

The district councils have the power to sanction expenditure upto Rs. 20,000 for a productive and Rs. 10,000 for an unproductive scheme out of developments grants, and up to Rs. 100,000 for schemes under the Rural Works Programme.

In East Pakistan there is no such limit for expenditure by district councils. Works Programme funds are placed at the disposal of the district council and it is competent to spend the amount on approved schemes.

The major function of divisional councils is co-ordination of activities of all local bodies in the division, scrutiny of development schemes, review of administration, and recommendations about improvements made by the district councils under them. They also formulate development schemes of importance to the division as a whole.

In West Pakistan, divisional councils can sanction expenditure up to Rs. 50,000 for a productive and Rs. 25,000 for an unproductive scheme, and up to Rs. 500,000 for a scheme under the Rural Works Programme.

In East Pakistan, divisional councils serve as co-ordinating bodies for district councils which operate with their own funds, not subject to the sanctioning authority of divisional councils.

Development: Of all the functions of Basic Democracies, their role in development programme of the country has been universally acknowledged



A conciliation court of Joidevpur Union Council, Dacca District, East Pakistan.

as the most significant. The fact is that the system itself is based on a realistic assessment of the functions of the government in the circumstances of today. The government has come to regard the country's development programme as its main responsibility next to the defence and internal security of Pakistan. Basic Democracies share this responsibility at their own respective levels and to the extent of their financial competence.

The union councils/town committees undertake a wide range of development activities in the field of agriculture, handicrafts, health and sanitation, fisheries, construction and repair of roads, culverts and embankments, minor drainage works, canals and bridges, educational institutions, community development and the like. The municipal committees/corporations are responsible for town planning and development of municipal services

generally while the district and divisional councils pool the resources of areas under their charge and provide financial sanction for the work of union councils/town union committees within their jurisdiction.

Training: To cope with the technical and specialized functions involved in development work, alongside of their judicial, administrative and other functions, Basic Democrats are required to undergo a short training course after their election. More specialized training is provided to secretaries and chairmen at two training centres at Lalamusa and Tando Jam in West Pakistan, and at the Khadimnagar (Sylhet) Training Institute in East Pakistan. Basic Democracies seminars and conventions are also held periodically to enable these elected public servants to pool their intelligence and thrash out their problems and their role in the progress of the country.

Finances: According to a decision of the Governors' Conference in 1962, the Central Government was to share the expenditure of Basic Democracies on development work, administrative expenses and holding of seminars and conventions and training courses to the extent of 60 per cent. The practice was modified in 1964-65 to the extent that the Central grant no longer includes expenses on development. Since then Basic Democracies have been running their development programmes from their own budgets on the basis of a 'Model Taxation Schedule' prepared for them by the provincial Governments. The Centre still contributes 60 per cent of other expenses.

Strengthening of local bodies' financial position is regarded as one of the major achievements of the Basic Democracies. The average income of the erstwhile union boards in Pakistan used to be about Rs. 3,000. As against this, average income of a union council now from its own taxes and share in local rates is Rs. 13,500. The average income of a former district board in East Pakistan was Rs. 500,000. It has now risen to nearly Rs. 2.6 million. Similar increases have taken place in West Pakistan. Urban bodies such as town committees, municipal committees and corporations have equally benefited, their revenues having increased several times over in both wings of the country.

Basic Democracies have utilized their improved financial position to promote local uplift and welfare projects which have brought the fruits of progress to the doorstep of the people and have enabled them to participate more closely both in the national development effort and in the benefits accruing from it. Hundreds of miles of roads have been built; bridges, culverts and embankments constructed; tubewells and Karezes dug; schools, dispensaries and community development centres set up in rural and urban areas, all out of the normal budgets of Basic Democracies, both in East and West Pakistan. On a rough estimate, about 65 per cent of union council funds and as much as 50 per cent of district council revenues are spent on local development projects.

Rural Works: In addition to normal development work undertaken out of their own budgets, the Basic Democracies have been entrusted with the

execution of the Rural Works programmes for which special grants are provided to them.

This programme emerged as a result of the President's visit to East Pakistan's flood-devastated areas in 1962 when Rs. 100 million were sanctioned for relief work. The Government of East Pakistan made a scheme for using this money which later became the basis of a country-wide effort aimed at utilization of idle labour in rural areas and injecting more capital in the rural economy.

A pilot project undertaken in the Kotwali thana of Comilla district at a cost of Rs. 100,000 yielded satisfactory results, and a regular allocation of Rs. 100 million was made in 1962-63 for expanding the programmes province-wide through Basic Democracies. West Pakistan adopted the programme the very next year and from a modest beginning of Rs. 100,000 pilot project, the programme has since spread into a large field of activity on which Rs. 1,805.5 million were spent upto the financial year 1966-67. The programme has been extended to the centrally administered areas of Gilgit, Baltistan and Azad Kashmir and is being constantly expanded and intensified. The total Third Plan allocation for the programme amounts to Rs. 1,820 million, out of which Rs. 334.7 million had already been utilized by the end of 1966-67 (Rs. 221.7 million in East Pakistan, Rs. 107.3 million in West Pakistan and the balance in the Central areas). The allocation for 1967-68 stood at Rs. 283 million; and the allocation for 1968-69 is Rs. 365.8 million.

The annual structure of this expenditure and the details of the programme and its achievements have been separately treated in this book under the 'Works Programme'.

The West Pakistan Governor, Mr. Mohammad Musa, addressing the concluding session of the National Basic Democracies Convention in Lahore on March 27, 1968.



Political Role: Along with the administrative and development functions already detailed, Basic Democracies discharge a vital political and constitutional role. They constitute the electoral college for the election of the President and the National and Provincial Assemblies; they form the nucleus of the emerging new leadership in the country and the source for the generation of political power. It is this that gives Basic Democrats authority and prestige and enables them to perform their duties in the social and economic field responsibily and effectively. Without political authority Basic Democracies would degenerate into mere appendages of the administration.

Viewed in this context, Basic Democracy is not exactly a four-tier structure, but really a six or seven tier pyramid pinnacled by the President and the National Assembly and broad-based in approximately 10,000 union councils and committees constituted by 80,000 elected representatives of the people at the time of the last general election, in 1964-65. As already mentioned, the number of Basic Democrats has since been raised to 120,000 for the next election.

The National and Provincial Assemblies are so thoroughly integrated with the system as a whole that they can be legitimately regarded as the fifth and sixth storeys of the same edifice.

As focal points of representative public opinion and public participation in government and as the nucleus for mobilization of political power in specified localities, Basic Democracies could be said to perform the same function as are entrusted in other countries to political parties. When the system was initiated, political parties were non-existent, having forfeited public confidence. Basic Democracies offered a feasible substitute for canalizing the energies of the public-spirited citizen who could, through this mechanism, exert himself directly in the administration of the country and also assert his choice in the higher strata of legislation and policy-making through his vote as a Member of the Electoral College.

Political parties are being formed, but Basic Democracies must retain their constitutional status and political position, which has the prime virtue of providing a political forum that is not partisan. On the other hand, Basic Democracies, as functioning units of administration, are exclusively devoted to the common national purpose, a positive programme of action for national development and progress, which gives them additional insight into the working of the government machinery.

The future role of Basic Democracies lies in the direction of assumption of greater responsibilities. In a public meeting in Dacca in September 1968, the President expressed the hope that Basic Democracies will gradually assume all functions connected with the administration of justice, maintenance of law and order and the administration of the Land Revenue System. As the author of the system the President feels that each Union Council and indeed each Ward within a Union Council should become an instrument of community development and progress. The Union Councils

should be the centre of knowledge and guidance and the Chairman and Members of the Union Council should be responsible for the affairs of their community. The day is not far off when government officials would be associated with Union Councils not as representatives of the government but as associates and nominees of the Councils themselves.

The President has also indicated that at Thana and Tehsil levels Basic Democracies should provide common facility centres for the maintenance and running of agricultural machinery and equipment. With the improvement in the methods of agriculture and with the introduction of new seeds, fertilizers, insecticides and pesticides much larger crops would become available. The community will have to devise some suitable system of pooling land and resources to handle, distribute and store crops of much larger size than available at present. Here too, Basic Democracies can serve as the focal point of the new agricultural system based on mechanization and pooling of land, while fully maintaining the right of private property.

Constitution and Legal System

THE ISLAMIC Republic of Pakistan has a written constitution which is federal and democratic. It has an elaborate system of law based on Acts of the legislature, Codes of Procedure and Evidence and the decisions of the Supreme Court and the High Courts of Pakistan.

CONSTITUTION

The Government of India Act 1935, as amended and adopted in Pakistan, provided the first 'constitution' for Pakistan. It was originally meant to be a constitution for a dependent, undivided India, and could not serve as the constitution for an independent country. Sovereignty did not reside with the people of the undivided Subcontinent but with the British Crown. The British Crown, through its representative, the Viceroy and Governor General of India, exercised paramount power and no ruler of an Indian State including the premier prince, the Nizam of Hyderabad State, could claim paramountcy in the Sub-continent.

Limited Self-government: The Government of India Act 1935 was intended to give the people only 'limited self-government'. It contained reservations and safeguards for various interests and the many powers reserved to the Governor-General were limitations on self-government. It gave representation to the people on the basis of a limited franchise amounting to about 14 per cent of the total population.

Federal and not unitary: The Government of India Act 1935 intended to establish a federation consisting of the provinces of British India and the princely States. Prior to this Act the constitution of undivided India was unitary. The proposed federation was

never established, as the two principal political parties, the Congress and the Muslim League, did not accept the federal provisions of the Government of India. At the outbreak of the Second World War, it was decided by the British Government not to proceed with the proposed federation for the time being. The proposal was not resumed after the War and, thus, that part of the Act which contained the federal clauses never became operative.

Amendment of the 1935 *Act*: On the eve of the Independence of the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent, the Government of India Act 1935 was amended:

(a) by the British Parliament, through the passing of the Indian Independence Act 1947, by which the limitations on the powers of the legislature under the Government of India Act 1935 on external affairs were removed;

(b) by the Pakistan (Provisional Constitution) Order 1947, the Governor-General's Ordinance No. 22 of 1947 was promulgated a few days before the creation of Pakistan at the request of Pakistan's leaders.

The Indian Independence Act, an Act of the British Parliament which brought Pakistan into being, established a sovereign Constituent Assembly which had the twin tasks of
(a) drafting the new Constitution of Pakistan and (b) acting as the Federal Legislature of Pakistan.

The Indian Independence Act 1947 also laid down that
(i) the Parliament of the United Kingdom would no longer have authority to legislate with regard to Pakistan;
(ii) no law made by Pakistan would be regarded as invalid on the ground of its being in conflict with any existing or future legislation of the British Parliament;
(iii) the external relations of Pakistan would be under the absolute control of the new Pakistani Government which would not be responsible to any external authority.

Quaid-i-Azam's Views: Quaid-i-Azam Mohammed Ali Jinnah, Founder of Pakistan, its first Governor-General and first President of the Constituent Assembly, was clear in his mind about the existing and future constitution of Pakistan. He maintained that the executive authority 'flows from the Head of the Government of Pakistan who is the Governor-General'. As for the new Constituent Assembly, he was of the opinion that it was a fully sovereign body of an independent country. 'You are now a sovereign legislative body', he told them, 'and you have got all the powers'.

The position, after the creation of Pakistan, therefore, was that
(a) the Constituent Assembly was a fully sovereign body and could amend the existing constitution, that is, the Government of India Act 1935 as adapted for Pakistan;
(b) no act of the British Parliament could be extended to Pakistan without subsequent legislation by the Federal Legislature of Pakistan.

First Constituent Assembly: This Assembly remained in existence for seven years. Its main achievements and the principal events in its life were as



President Mohammad Ayub Khan taking the oath for his new term of office as President of Pakistan at the Pakistan House, Islamabad, on March 23, 1965. *The chief Justice of Pakistan, Justice A.* R. *Cornelius, is administering the oath.*

follows:

The resolution of March 12, 1949, on Aims and Objects of the Future Constitution was adopted by the Assembly.

On September 7, 1950, the Interim Report of the Basic Principles Committee was presented to the Constituent Assembly. The Assembly, due to political considerations, decided to postpone consideration of the Report for an indefinite period.

On October 6, 1950, an Interim Report of the Committee on Fundamental Rights of the Citizens of Pakistan and Matters Relating to Minorities was adopted by the Constituent Assembly.

The Report of the Basic Principles Committee in its final and complete form was presented on December 22, 1952 before the Assembly which, again, decided to postpone consideration of the Report indefinitely.

The Report of the Basic Principles Committee, after some amendments, was adopted by the Assembly on September 21, 1954.

The Governor-General dissolved the Constituent Assembly on October 24, 1954. It is said that the Assembly was dissolved at a time when it had nearly completed the task of the drafting of the constitution.

Tamizuddin Khan Case: After the dissolution of the Constituent Assembly by the Governor-General, Moulvi Tamizuddin Khan, the Speaker of the Constituent Assembly, challenged the dissolution in the courts. He also asked for his restoration as the Speaker of the Constituent Assembly. He filed a case before the Chief Court of Sind (now a Bench of the West Pakistan High Court) under section 223-A of the Government of India Act 1935 for the issue of writs. The Chief Court of Sind decided the case in his favour and issued the writs. The Federation of Pakistan appealed against this decision; and the Federal Court decided in favour of the appellant, reversed the decision of the Chief Court and withdrew the writs.

This decision of the Federal Court resulted in a constitutional deadlock, but after a decision by the Federal Court in Yusuf Patel's Case and the reply of the Federal Court to a reference made by the Governor-General, the constitutional impasse was resolved and a new Constituent Assembly was summoned by proclamation on April 15, 1955.

This second Constituent Assembly
(i) passed the Establishment of West Pakistan Act 1955, which merged all the provinces of West Pakistan into One Unit;
(ii) passed the first Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. It received the assent of the Governor-General on March 22, 1956.

First Constitution: The salient features of the 1956 Constitution have been summarized as follow:*

In its general aspect, the 1956 Constitution was based on the pattern of

*Mohammad Munir, *Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan*, 1965.

the Government of India Act 1935. It provided a parliamentary form of Government, with a President elected by the members of the National Assembly and the two Provincial Assemblies and a Cabinet of Ministers headed by a Prime Minister to be appointed by the President.

The Executive: The Prime Minister was to be a person whom the President thought likely to command the confidence of a majority of the members of the National Assembly. The executive authority vested in the President, but he was to act on the advice of the Prime Minister. The Cabinet was to consist of ministers who were all members of, and collectively responsible to, the National Assembly.

There were to be two provinces, East Pakistan and West Pakistan. In each province, the executive authority vested in the Governor, who was to be appointed by the President and who, vis-a-vis the Chief Minister and the provincial cabinet, occupied a position similar to that of the President.

Legislature: The National Assembly was to consist of 310 directly elected members, 150 from either province, and each Provincial Assembly was to have 310 members, also directly elected. Each of these assemblies had a five-year term, but it could be dissolved earlier. There was an Election Commission charged with the duty of preparing electoral rolls and conducting elections in accordance with law to be made by Parliament. The principle of adult suffrage was recognized in defining the right to vote.

Legislative power was divided into three lists of subjects, the Federal, the Provincial and the Concurrent lists; and the division of executive authority closely followed the distribution of legislative power. Residuary powers were to vest in the provinces. Parliament had complete control over public revenue and finance.

Judiciary: The Supreme Court was the highest court of the country, having original jurisdiction in disputes between the Central Government and the provinces or any two of them; advisory jurisdiction in cases involving interpretation of the Constitution; defined jurisdiction in criminal and civil matters, and special jurisdiction over all courts and tribunals other than courts-martial. Each province had a High Court which, apart from its ordinary appellate jurisdiction, had the power to issue directions to all statutory authorities and writs of prohibition, mandamus, *certiorari*, *quowarranto* and habeas corpus.

Fundamental Rights: Fundamental rights were enumerated, and included such rights as equal protection of the law, freedom of thought, speech, worship, assembly and vocation, to the extent that if any existing or future law was found repugnant to such rights, it was to be considered void. The rights were declared to be enforceable by proper proceedings taken before the High Court, the Supreme Court or any other court.

The Constitution of 1956 was abrogated on October 7, 1958, through a proclamation of the President, and Martial Law was proclaimed.

Second Constitution: When President Mohammad Ayub Khan took over the

reins of Government in October 1958, he promised the nation that a suitable constitution would be enacted as early as possible. In 1960, he appointed an eight-member Constitution Commission headed by the former Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Mr. Justice Shahabuddin. The members of the Commission extensively toured the country, interviewed people in various walks of life and invited their opinions. They submitted a draft at the end of 1961 which the President accepted with slight modifications and he affixed his signature to the new Constitution on the first day of March 1962.

Under the Constitution, the State of Pakistan is known as the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. It comprises two provinces — East and West Pakistan. The Constitution provides for the Presidential form of Government in which the President is responsible for internal and external policies of the country, and his ministers act as advisers. The ministers are appointed by the President and remain in office at his pleasure. They are not members of the legislature, but they have a right to sit and speak in the National Assembly. If a member of the Assembly is selected by the President as his Cabinet minister, he vacates his seat in the Assembly.

Fundamental Rights: According to the Fundamental Rights and the Principles of Policy laid down in the Constitution, every citizen enjoys the protection of law. No one can be deprived of life or liberty save in accordance with the law. No one can be forced to do anything which does not fall within his legal obligations. Loyalty to the Republic is the basic duty, and obedience to the law the basic obligation of every citizen. All citizens are equal before the law. Their rights include: freedom of movement within the country, freedom of speech and peaceful assembly and the right to engage in lawful business and the professions. All these rights have been conferred subject to the restriction imposed by law in the interest of public order and morality. Every Pakistani has the right to profess, practice and propagate any religion and maintain his religious institutions subject to public order and morality. The Constitution also concedes the right to acquire, hold and dispose of property subject to reasonable restrictions imposed by the law. No one can be deprived of his property except in accordance with the law. The Constitution prohibits slavery, forced labour and untouchability.

According to the Principles of Policy laid down in the Constitution, no law in Pakistan shall be repugnant to the teachings of Islam as set out in the Holy Quran and the Sunnah. Parochial, racial, tribal, sectarian and provincial prejudice shall be discouraged, and the legitimate rights and interests of the minorities shall be protected. Women and children shall not be employed in vocations unsuited to their age and sex. According to the principles of policy, free and compulsory education should be provided for all as soon as practicable, and the basic necessities, such as food, clothing and housing, shall be secured to the people. Both the provinces of Pakistan shall be treated on the basis of parity at the Centre. Persons belonging to all areas shall be allowed to join the armed forces. Use of alcoholic liquor, prostitution, gambling and the taking of injurious drugs shall be discouraged, and usury shall be

eliminated. Special care is to be taken to promote the educational and economic interests of the backward classes. Steps are required to bring the benefits of equality to members of underprivileged castes, races, tribes and groups, and the provincial Governments are expected to identify such castes, races, tribes and groups.

The well-being of the people, irrespective of caste, creed and race, is to be secured by (a) raising the standard of living of the common man (b) preventing undue concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of a few to the detriment of the common man and (c) ensuring equitable adjustment of rights between employers and employees and between landlords and tenants. All citizens are to have fair opportunities to work and earn an adequate livelihood and also to enjoy reasonable rest and leisure.

The Government of Pakistan has three important branches—Legislative, Executive and the Judiciary. Pakistan has a Federal form of Government, in which the subjects are divided between the Central and the Provincial Governments. Defence, foreign affairs, finance and currency, communications, commerce and industry are among the important subjects dealt with by the Centre. Although the Centre lays down the broad policies in education, health, labour and social welfare, these are mainly provincial subjects. Pakistan is an Islamic republic and the duties of the State include instruction in Islamic teaching.

President: The President is the Head of the State as well as the Head of the Central Government. A Muslim, who has attained the age of 35 years and is qualified to be elected as a member of the National Assembly, can become the President of Pakistan.

He is elected for a term of five years by an Electoral College consisting of 120,000 members known as Basic Democrats. Under the principle of parity, this number is equally divided between East and West Pakistan. Each of the two provinces elects 60,000 members of basic democracies on the basis of adult franchise. These 120,000 members elect members of the Central and Provincial Legislatures as well as the President.

The President has specific wide powers under the Constitution. He is the Supreme Commander of the Defence Services, appoints ministers, parliamentary secretaries, provincial governors, the Attorney-General, the Election Commissioner, ambassadors and members of the Public Service Commission. The President's assent is essential in case of all Bills passed by the National Assembly. His assent or dissent has to be given within 30 days after a Bill is presented to him. He may also send it back to the Assembly for reconsideration, requiring a two-third majority for its ratification, or direct a referendum. But if he fails to do any of these things, he shall be deemed to have assented to the Bill on the expiry of 30 days. Except on items relating to new expenditure, the Budget is not subject to the vote of the National Assembly.

The President may dissolve the National Assembly before the expiry of its term, but in that event he himself ceases to hold office and must seek

re-election.

The President can be impeached by one-third of the total members of the National Assembly, who have to give notice to the Speaker that they intend to move a resolution for the removal of the President on charges of wilful violation of the Constitution or gross misconduct. A copy of the notice is transmitted to the President. The resolution has to be moved in the Assembly not earlier than 14 days and not later than 30 days after the notice. The President has a right to appear before the Assembly during the consideration of the resolution. If the resolution is passed by more than three-quarters of the total number of members, the President shall forthwith cease to hold office and shall be disqualified from holding any public office for a period of 10 years. If less than one-half of the total number of members support the resolution, the members who had given notice for removal shall cease to be members of the Assembly. If the President is ill and submits himself for examination before a Medical Board, the Resolution for his removal shall not be voted upon until the Board has given its opinion. The Medical Board will consist of five highly qualified medical practitioners.

If the office of President falls vacant due to his illness, or absence from Pakistan, the Speaker of the National Assembly shall act as President. But a person acting as President cannot dissolve the National Assembly nor can he remove a governor, a minister or a parliamentary secretary from office.

As Supreme Commander of the Defence Services, the President can raise and maintain defence services and reserves for these services. He can grant commissions and appoint Commanders-in-Chief of the services and determine their salaries and allowances. The President has powers to grant pardon, reprieves and respites, and to remit, suspend or commute any sentence passed by the court, tribunal or other authority.

Central Legislature: The Central Legislature consists of the President and one House, known as the National Assembly, which makes federal laws. It consists of 218 members elected on the basis of parity between East and West Pakistan. Eight seats are reserved for women — four from each of the two provinces — but women can also seek election to other seats. Five of the seats of members for each province are reserved for persons who have held office as President, Speaker, governor or minister or have acquired high distinction in art, science or literature or practical experience of law, medicine, engineering or journalism for not less than 10 years.

The National Assembly is elected for a term of five years unless dissolved earlier. The President may summon and prorogue the National Assembly, except when it has been summoned by the Speaker, who may do this on the request of at least one-third of the members of the Assembly. The President has a right to dissolve the Assembly, but he may not dissolve it when the unexpired portion of the term of the Assembly is less than 120 days. Nor can the Assembly be dissolved if its members have given notice for the removal of the President before the resolution has been voted upon or

before the expiration of 30 days after the expiry of the period within which it may be moved, whichever first occurs. When the President dissolves the Assembly, he himself ceases to hold office and must seek re-election.

If there is a conflict between the President and the National Assembly on any matter, the President can hold a referendum. The matter is to be put to the referendum in the form of a question, the answer to which must be Yes or No.

If the Assembly is not in session, and the President is satisfied that immediate legislation is necessary, he may promulgate an Ordinance, but that Ordinance must be brought before the Assembly for approval as soon as practicable.

In case of threat of external aggression, war, internal disturbances or threat to economic life, the President can declare an emergency by means of a proclamation.

The National Assembly must hold at least two sessions in the year. The members elect a Speaker who presides over the sessions of the Assembly. Two Deputy Speakers are also elected by the Assembly.

Legislative powers are distributed between the Centre and the provinces, the central legislature having exclusive power to legislate on matters specified in the Third Schedule and the Provincial legislatures on all other subjects.

Central Government: All executive authority of the Republic is vested in the President. To assist him in his functions, he may appoint a Council of Ministers. They are persons qualified to be members of the National Assembly, but they are not its members. The President also appoints an Attorney General who is a person qualified to be a judge of the Supreme Court. The Attorney General has the right of audience in all courts of Pakistan.

All revenues and loans received by the Central Government form part of the Central Consolidated Fund and the remuneration of the President, Speaker, Chief Election Commissioner, members of the Public Service Commission and administrative expenses are paid from this Fund. The President through the Finance Minister lays before the National Assembly the Annual Budget which is a statement of estimated national receipts and estimated expenditure for the coming year.

Supreme Court: The highest judicial body in the country is known as the Supreme Court. It consists of the Chief Justice and other judges, whose number is determined by law or in the absence of such law, by the President. The Chief. Justice is appointed by the President, and the other judges are appointed by him in consultation with the Chief Justice. A Judge of the Supreme Court holds office till the age of 65. The permanent seat of the Supreme Court shall be Islamabad, but it shall sit in Dacca at least twice every year. Besides being the final court of appeal, the Supreme Court has advisory and constitutional jurisdiction. It also has original jurisdiction in any dispute between one of the Governments and one or both of the other Governments. The President may also seek the advice of the Supreme Court on legal prob-

lems. Subject to the Constitution, the Supreme Court, with the approval of the President, can make rules regulating the practice and procedure of the Court.

Provinces: The President appoints a Governor in each province, who performs his functions subject to the directions of the President. The Governor is advised and assisted by a council of ministers who are not members of the Provincial Assembly. They are appointed with the approval of the President and hold office during the pleasure of the Governor.

In each province there is a Provincial Assembly consisting of 218 members. Eight seats in the Assembly are reserved for women, but as in case of the Central legislature, they are eligible to seek election to other non-reserved seats. Similarly ten seats are reserved for persons who have attained distinction in art, science or literature. The term of the Provincial Assembly is five years and it can be summoned by the Governor, who can also prorogue it except when it is summoned by the Speaker. In case of conflict between the Governor and the Provincial Assembly, the matter is referred to the National Assembly. No Bill or amendment to a Bill relating to preventive detention can be introduced in the Provincial Assembly without the previous consent of the Governor. The Governor, like the President, has to assent to Bills passed by the Provincial Assembly, and the Governor also has the power to issue Ordinances, as his position in the province is generally similar to that of the President at the Centre.

High Courts: Each Province has a High Court consisting of the Chief Justice and Judges whose number is fixed either by the law or by the President. The age for the retirement of a High Court Judge is 60 years. High Courts hear appeals from lower courts and control the courts that are subordinate to them.

The Constitution has laid down the law for contempt of Court, which comes into operation against those who abuse, interfere with or obstruct the process of the Court, scandalize the Court or do anything which by law constitutes contempt.

The Central legislature has the power to make laws for the whole of Pakistan, while the provincial legislatures can make laws for the province. If a provincial law is inconsistent with the Central law, the latter shall prevail.

Provisions have been made in the Constitution for a National Economic Council which will review economic policies and approve economic plans for the country.

Elections: The President appoints a Chief Election Commissioner for a period of three years. He arranges elections and referendums. The Election Commission comprises the Commissioner, who is the Chairman, and two other members — judges of High Courts from East and West Pakistan. Any Pakistani who has attained the age of 21, is of sound mind and lives in an electoral unit is entitled to vote, but those who seek election to the Electoral College must be 25 years old.

The President's election is held within a period of 120 days before his term

expires. A President is eligible for re-election, but if a person who has been holding the office of President for more than eight years is a candidate for election, a joint meeting of the National and Provincial Assemblies must be called to consider his candidature; and he can stand for election only if a majority of their members approve. Not more than three persons — the sitting President excepted — to be selected at a joint sitting of the three Assemblies may seek election to the office of President.

The President also appoints a Comptroller and Auditor General who audits the expenditure and the accounts of the Centre and provinces as required by the law.

Amending the Constitution: The Constitution contains provisions for its amendment. An amending bill can be presented to the President if it is passed by two-thirds of the total number of members of the National Assembly. The President may withhold his assent to the bill so passed or return it for reconsideration. If assent is withheld, the Assembly may reconsider the bill and again present it to the President for assent if it now has the support of three-fourths of the total number of members. If the bill is returned for reconsideration and it is passed by the Assembly by a two-thirds majority of the total number of members without any amendment or without the amendments suggested by the President, it may be presented again to the President who may, if the bill be still not acceptable to him, direct a referendum on it.

Amendments: So far, the Constitution has been amended by eight amending Acts. The first amendment made the fundamental rights justiciable. The second introduced changes in the order in which the election to the office of the President and the election of the members of the National Assembly were to be held. The third related to qualifications of members of the National Assembly. The fourth dealt with holding an office of profit by judges, and also empowered the President and the Governors to direct the retirement of civil servants upon completion of 25 years of service or 55 years of age. The fifth amendment authorized suspension of Fundamental Rights while a proclamation of emergency is in force. The sixth re-fixed the age of retirement of civil servants at 55 years, subject to re-employment or extension of service. This Act also empowered a change in the principle of taxation by the levy of taxes on productive capacities instead of on the products themselves, for the better utilization of the existing industrial capacity in the country. The seventh amendment empowered the Assembly to introduce amendments in the ordinances promulgated by the President. The eighth amendment has increased the number of members of the Assemblies with reservation of seats for distinguished persons, and has permitted extension of the period of service for Government servants performing judicial functions.

On September 6, 1965, a Proclamation of Emergency under Article 30 of the Constitution was issued by the President when Indian forces invaded Pakistan. Pursuant to the Proclamation of Emergency, which is still in force, various ordinances and orders were issued, including the Defence of Pakistan Ordinance and the Rules made

thereunder. The eighth amendment was passed in 1967.

In 1967, a number of important cases on constitutional matters were decided. To mention only a few, in P.L.D. 1967 Lahore 1, it was held that the suspension of Fundamental Rights by a Proclamation of Emergency under Article 30(9) of the Constitution affected only those Rights specified in the Proclamation and not other Rights. In P.L.D. 1967 Lahore 159, it was held that the salary of a Government servant was no longer a bounty of the State, but could be claimed as a legal right. In P.L.D. 1967 S.C. 388, it was decided that for making an order under the Defence of Pakistan Ordinance regarding the detention of any person, it is necessary that the detaining authority should be satisfied of the necessity of making such an order. In P.L.D. 1967 S.C. 501, it was decided that the rules of a High Court requiring writ petitions to be submitted in English and rejecting one written in Bengali, were not violative of Article 215 of the Constitution.

During the year 1967, 18 Central Acts were placed on the statute book, and four ordinances were approved by the National Assembly and became statute law. Of these, the most important were the Electoral College (Amendment) Act, 1967, consequent upon the increase in the number of members of the Assembly; the Weights and Measures (Metric System) Act, 1967, designed to introduce the metric system in the country; the Pharmacy Act, 1967; the University of Islamabad Act, 1967; and the Constitution (Eighth Amendment) Act, 1967.

LEGAL SYSTEM

The legal system of Pakistan comprises:

(a) the Codes: Such as the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Pakistan Penal Code;

(b) other Statutes enacted over a period of time prior to the Independence of the Sub-continent and by National and Provincial Legislatures after the creation of Pakistan;

(c) decisions of the High Courts, the Federal Court and the Supreme Court of Pakistan and other judicial tribunals before and after the creation of Pakistan.

Civil Law: Except for some special tribunals, the procedure of the civil courts in Pakistan is governed by the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908. This Code governs the manner of the institution of suits, the service of summons, the settlement of issues, the form of decrees and the execution of decrees. The Civil Procedure Code also provides for interlocutory matters during the suit, such as the issue of injunctions, attachment before judgement, and the appointment of receivers.

Statutes: To some extent customary law still prevails, but its importance is on the decline. The Hindus in East Pakistan are generally governed by the Dayabhaga School of Hindu Law.

The laws relating to evidence, contract, partnership, sale of goods, arbitration, carriage of goods by sea, insurance companies, limitation, transfer of property, negotiable instruments, trade marks and specific relief are to be found in statutes. Though these laws

are generally based on the principles of English Common Law, they have been adapted to conform to conditions in Pakistan.

In matters like succession, marriage, divorce and endowments, individuals are governed by their respective personal laws as provided by the religion to which they belong. A Muslim would be governed by the principles of Muslim law, a Hindu by the principles of Hindu law, and so on.

It is, however, possible for even personal law to be amended by legislation. The most important was the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance (1960), which provides for a systematic registration of marriages, and prescribes a procedure for notice, arbitration and conciliation in matters of divorce.

Criminal Law: In Pakistan, the criminal law is codified in two major enactments: the Pakistan Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure, of which the former is the substantive law and the latter the adjective law. These statutes came into force in 1860 and 1898, respectively, replacing the *Sharia* which was being administered by the courts ever since the inception of Mughal rule.

Penal Code: It sets out, with great precision and in detail, every aspect of criminal liability in respect of a variety of offences. An act constitutes a crime only if it comes within the ambit of one or more of the definitions or descriptions given in the code.

Appeals and Jurisdictions: The Code of Criminal Procedure creates a hierarchy of the magistracy headed by a district magistrate in each district. It also lays down the limits of police authority and the manner of its functioning. Appeals from the orders of conviction and appealable sentences passed by the magistrate lie to the Court of Session in case of convictions with sentences of four years' imprisonment or less. An appeal lies to the High Court in other cases, and a further appeal to the Supreme Court on a point of law by special leave. Some magistrates are specially empowered under Section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code to impose any sentence except that of death and of imprisonment exceeding seven years.

Law of Evidence: The Evidence Act, 1872, lays down the rules prescribing the admissibility, the exclusion and the relative weight to be ascribed to various kinds of evidence. This Act, in general, follows the principles of the English law of evidence with some modifications rendered necessary by local conditions and circumstances. The intention of the Act is:

(i) to allow the admission of only such evidence in the course of a trial as may be strictly relevant to the matters at issue;

(ii) to bind the court to a process which minimizes the possibility of personal opinion, subjective opinion and suspicion and temperamental bias of a judge supervening in his verdict;

(iii) to protect the accused from an overzealous prosecution — through such maxims of law as that ***a man shall stand innocent until proved guilty, and that the commission of crime must be proved beyond all reasonable doubt.***

Trial by Elders: In West Pakistan, under certain circumstances, there is also

provision for jirga trials. A jirga is constituted by the Divisional Commissioner and comprises the notables and respected elders of the community. It is presided over by an experienced and qualified magistrate, but is not bound by rules of evidence as laid down in the Evidence Act, 1872, and the Code of Criminal Procedure. The jirga is empowered to impose any sentence short of death and transportation for life. The Commissioner of an administrative division has a discretionary power to refer the trial of certain specified heinous offences to the jirga if he deems it inexpedient, in the interest of justice, that such offences should be tried by the ordinary courts of law.

Laws and Islamic Ideology: The Constitution requires, among other things,

(i) that no law should be made that is repugnant to the requirements and teachings of Islam;

(ii) that existing laws should be brought in conformity with them;

(iii) that the Muslims of the country should be enabled to order their lives in accordance with the fundamental principles and basic concepts of Islam, and should be provided facilities whereby they may be enabled to understand the meaning of life according to those principles and concepts.

The initial steps taken by the Government in pursuance of this included the setting up of an Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology and an Islamic Research Institute.

The Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology established under the Constitution is entrusted with task of:

(1) Making recommendations as to the means of enabling and encouraging the Muslims of Pakistan to order their lives in accordance with the principles and concepts of Islam.

(2) Examining all laws in force immediately before the commencement of the Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1963, with a view to making recommendations for bringing them into conformity with the provisions of the Holy Quran and Sunnah.

(3) Advising the authorized referring authorities on particular references, that is, whether a proposed law is or is not repugnant to the teachings and requirements of Islam as set out in the Holy Quran and Sunnah.

The Council has, in discharge of its first function, made a number of recommendations, including severer punishments for adultration of food, kidnapping of children and smuggling. All recommendations have received the careful consideration of the Government.

Research with respect to the Criminal Procedure Code, the Evidence Act and other Acts included in the first two volumes of the Unrepealed Central Acts have been completed by the Council, and its recommendations will be made.

During 1967, more attention was paid to the examination of existing laws. Accordingly, the Council examined as many as 30 Acts of Volume II of the Pakistan Code and forwarded its recommendations to the Government for amendment, where necessary, in order to bring them into conformity with the Holy Quran and Sunnah.

In the discharge of its third function, the Council gave its opinion on a reference received from the Central Government in connection with the issue of commemorative postage stamps on the occasion of the 1400th anniversary of the Revelation of the Holy Quran. Recommendations on the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, 1961, which is also a subject of reference from the National Assembly, have been finalized.

Work on the examination of laws contained in volume III of the Pakistan Code is in progress and recommendations on these laws are expected to be formulated and sent to the Government in the near future.

Research Institute: The function of the Islamic Research Institute under Article 207 of the Constitution is to undertake Islamic research and instruction for the purpose of assisting in the reconstruction of Muslim society on a truly Islamic basis. Among the areas selected for research, special emphasis is being laid on Islamic history and philosophy to demonstrate the contribution Islam has made to the enrichment of human thought and culture.

Adaptation of Laws: The work of adaptation of laws was taken up by the Ministry of Law in pursuance of Article 225(4) of the Constitution. The Adaptation Order relating to unrepealed Central Acts and Ordinances, contained in 15 volumes of the Central Statute Book, was issued sometime ago.

Apart from the completion of the work of adaptation of laws, publication of a completely up to date and corrected edition of the entire statute laws has also been undertaken. The manuscript embodying the laws with corrections is complete and is in the press.

Translation of Laws: The Ministry of Law has also created two new cells for translating the most important laws into Urdu and Bengali, the national languages of Pakistan. Translations of the following have already been issued: the Constitution of Pakistan, the Electoral Laws, the Defence of Pakistan Rules, the Bar Councils Act, the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance, 1961, the Conciliation Courts Ordinance 1961 and a large number of statutory rules. The translation of the Sea Customs Acts and of the Pakistan Penal Code has been completed and will shortly be in print.

Government

Chief Executive: The Government of Pakistan is headed by President Mohammad Ayub Khan who came to power in October, 1958. The People re-affirmed full confidence in him when a referendum was held in February 1960. Then, he was also given a mandate to frame a constitution for the country.

This Constitution, based on a report prepared by a Constitution Commission appointed by the President, came into effect in 1962. The first general elections, under the new Constitution were held in 1964-65, when President Ayub Khan received a convincing majority after a keenly contested election and, thus, he continues as President for another five-year term.

As Chief Executive, the President is assisted by a council of eleven ministers selected by him. He presides over the meetings of this Council of Ministers as well as the Governors' Conference which is attended by the two provincial governors, members of the Cabinet or Council of Ministers and secretaries of important ministries. He, likewise, presides over meetings of the National Economic Council which takes final decisions in respect of all economic policies and projects prepared by the Planning Commission.

Central Secretariat: There is a Central Secretariat which implements the decisions and policies of the Chief Executive and carries on the administration of the country.

Each division of a ministry is headed by a secretary or by a joint secretary. In the case of the President's Secretariat and the Cabinet Secretariat, the secretary works directly under the President except in the Planning and Economic

Affairs Divisions where, for decisions at the ministerial level, the secretary is responsible to the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission who has the rank of minister but without Cabinet status. In the case of ministries, the secretary is responsible to the respective ministers.

Attached Departments: Divisions control attached departments and subordinate offices which execute policies as prepared in the divisions. The divisions also provide the sanctioning authority for administrative and other expenditure incurred by the departments and offices.

In a series of administrative reforms, effected under the regime of President Ayub Khan, precise working of the Secretariat and powers and functions of attached departments and their relationship with the ministries has been greatly simplified. The number of divisions and departments has considerably increased along with autonomous bodies, corporations and statutory authorities created to carry out specialized functions in specific fields of development.

Attached departments vary greatly in size, importance and powers. Some are headed by officials having the status of a full secretary and others by officials equal in rank to a deputy secretary. Although the status varies, typical attached department is likely to have at its head a director-general or a chief administrator with considerable freedom of action and adequate financial powers.

Subordinate offices: These offices work under direct control of the respective ministries for the execution of policy. Matters of personnel administration, fixation of pay, increments, transfers, promotions and financial sanction are controlled by the ministry. Subordinate offices are usually headed by officers of rank and status lower than that of secretary to the Government.

President's Secretariat: The President's Secretariat consists of three divisions, namely, Planning, Economic Affairs and States and Frontier Regions.

The Planning Division is assigned the work of assessing the material and human resources of the country, formulating national plans and programmes, preparing overall evaluations of progress achieved, and maintaining data for the purpose of foreign aid negotiations.

The Economic Affairs Division deals with assessment of economic requirements and with negotiations for securing economic and technological assistance from foreign governments and international agencies.

The Central Statistical Office is a subordinate body under the Economic Affairs Division. Headed by a Director-General, it collects, collates and publishes statistical data of national importance.

The States and Frontier Regions Division is primarily responsible for political and military administration of Pakistan's north-west tribal areas.

Cabinet Secretariat: Under this Secretariat there are two divisions, namely, Cabinet and Establishment.



Governor's Conference presided over by President Mohammad Ayub Khan, at the President's House, Rawalpindi, November 13, 1967.

The Cabinet Division is entrusted with all the secretarial work of the Cabinet, its committees and the Governors' Conference and supervises implementation of decisions taken. The Central Intelligence Bureau is under this division.

The Establishment Division regulates all matters of general applicability to the public services, recruitment to the superior services, administration of the all-Pakistan and other central secretariat services, in-service training of public servants, civil awards and staff welfare. This division has an O&M Wing which constantly has under review the organization, procedures and methods of Government offices.

Ministries

Defence: This ministry is responsible for policy relating to the defence of Pakistan, including the defence services, defence equipment and warlike stores.

The Departments of Civil Aviation, Tourism, Cyphers and Meteorology are under this ministry, as well as other organizations concerned with defence production and management, such as the Ordnance Factory at Wah.

Foreign Affairs: The primary concern of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is with Pakistan's relations with foreign countries. It is the responsibility of this ministry to make appointments to all diplomatic posts, arrange visits of foreign dignitaries and tours of the President in foreign countries. The ministry also deals with the security operation of cypher traffic.

Finance: The Ministry of Finance controls all financial transactions of the Government and is responsible for preparing annual Budget of the country as well as its implementation. The Central Board of Revenue is an attached department of this ministry while the State Bank, the Auditor General (for administrative purposes only) the National Bank of Pakistan, PICIC, and other financial corporations are controlled by this ministry.

Home Affairs: The Home Affairs Division is concerned with the maintenance of internal public security and matters arising out of dealings and agreements with other countries and organizations. The Directorate of Civil Defence and the Directorate of Immigration and Passports are under this ministry.

The Kashmir Affairs Division looks after the affairs of Azad Kashmir through the Chief Adviser to the Azad Government of Jammu and Kashmir who is also Resident in Gilgit and Baltistan.

These divisions together form one ministry.

Industries and Natural Resources: Grouped together with the Natural Resources Division, under the Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources, the Industries Division deals with industrial planning and co-ordination, investment and enterprise in the industrial field, central agencies and institutions for industrial research and productivity and compilation of industrial statistics. Pakistan Standards Institute, Industrial Technical Assistance Centre, Departments of Printing and Stationery, Explosives, the Government of Pakistan Press, Directorate of Investment Promotion and Supplies, Central Test-

ing Laboratories, Patent Office, Investment Advisory Centre and Investment Corporation of Pakistan are under this division.

Exploration, exploitation and the development of oil and gas, minerals, water and power resources of the country are the responsibility of the Natural Resources Division. The Indus Basin Works set up under the Indus Basin Treaty between India, Pakistan and the World Bank, as well as the operations of the Oil and Gas Corporation, come within the purview of this division. International dealings in respect of mineral wealth and water and power resources are also the responsibilities of this division. The Geological Survey of Pakistan, an organization responsible for geological survey and exploration of minerals is under this division.

Food and Works: The Food and Agriculture Division is responsible for economic co-ordination and planning in respect of food and agriculture, animal husbandry, plant protection and forestry, fisheries and agricultural co-operation. The operations of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, plant quarantine, agriculture census, survey of Pakistan and zoological research all fall within the purview of this division. The division has administrative control of Central Cotton and Jute Committees, the Institute of Cotton Research and Technology, Department of Marketing Intelligence and Agricultural Statistics, Departments of Plant Quarantine and Locust Warning and Zoological Survey, Marine Fisheries, and also the Food and Agriculture Council.

The Rehabilitation and Works Division deals with the Capital Development Authority (responsible for developing the new capital at Islamabad) the Pakistan Public Works Department and the Estate Offices at Karachi and Rawalpindi.

The two divisions are at present grouped as one ministry.

Commerce: Trade between the two provinces as well as commercial policy and transactions with foreign countries and Governments are regulated by the Ministry of Commerce which also determines the trade and tariff policies of Pakistan generally. The Export Promotion Bureau has been set up by this ministry for the expansion of trade abroad. Increased production and alternative uses for the two main cash crops of Pakistan, namely, jute and cotton, are also special responsibility of this ministry which has set up separate Jute and Cotton Boards for the purpose. The Tariff Commission which deals with tariff policy, Department of Insurance, Pakistan Insurance Corporation and Trading Corporation of Pakistan are all controlled by this ministry.

Pakistan's growing interest in scientific and technological advancement was underlined by the setting up of a separate division for this purpose, now transferred to the Ministry of Commerce from the President's Secretariat. The work of Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission, Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, National Science Council — all autonomous bodies — and the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, is co-ordinated by the Scientific and Techno-

logical Research Division, while the Ministry of Education deals with the educational aspect of the promotion of science and technology as well as general progress of education throughout the country.

Education: The Ministry of Education is responsible for the development of educational and cultural institutions in Pakistan, supervises implementation of educational reforms instituted by President Ayub Khan's administration. The ministry also deals with cultural relations and promotion of international contacts in art, culture, and scientific exchange. It also arranges overseas studies and scholarships for Pakistani students.

The Department of Archaeology and Museums is an attached department of this ministry responsible for exploration, excavation and preservation of archaeological and historical treasures. The Directorate of Archives and Libraries is a subordinate body of the same ministry which runs a Central Bureau for collecting and disseminating educational statistics and information.

In addition, this ministry controls seven autonomous bodies, namely, Pakistan Sports Control Board, Iqbal Academy, National Book Centre, Central Boards for the Development of Bengali and Urdu, located at Dacca and Lahore, respectively, and the Urdu Development Board, Karachi. It also provides financial grants for such organizations as the Pakistan Arts Council.

Information and Broadcasting: The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting is responsible for the dissemination of information at home and abroad, through various media, including films, television, radio and the press. The Department of Films and Publications headed by a Director is an organ of this ministry producing films and literature for internal and external distribution. The Press Information Department, headed by the Principal Information Officer, is the main channel of news communication between the Government and the national and international press. It also looks after matters relating to the press relations and the development of the newspaper industry. The Bureau of National Research collects material on topics of national interest and importance. The Directorate-General of Radio Pakistan, the Tribal Publicity Department and the Central Board of Film Censors are all controlled by this ministry. The work of promoting greater understanding and solidarity among different sections of the people has been entrusted to an autonomous body known as the Pakistan Council for National Integration.

Communications: The responsibilities of the Ministry of Communications, extend from the country's rail and road transport system to the postal, telegraphic and telephone services, including radio-telegraph links. Until recently, it also controlled shipping and navigation, including the Directorate of Ports and Shipping. The National Shipping Corporation, as well as Karachi and Chittagong Port Trusts, were under its jurisdiction. As from January 1967, however, the entire subject of shipping has been transferred to the Ministry of Defence which administers the newly-built Chalna Port in East Pakistan directly, through the Director of Ports, while smaller

ports, like Pasni and Gwadur in West Pakistan, are placed under the provincial Government. The subject of Hajj and pilgrimage to holy places is also dealt with by the Directorate of Shipping under the Ministry of Defence. The Department of Civil Aviation has been controlled by the Ministry of Defence for some time. The subject of railways was transferred to the provinces in 1962, but the Ministry of Communications retains a railways wing for the purpose of co-ordination. Road transport is also largely governed by the provincial road transport authorities. River traffic in East Pakistan is controlled by the Inland Waterways Authority which is a provincial organization. The work of the central Ministry of Communications is, thus, concentrated at present on the Pakistan Posts Department and Pakistan Telephone and Telegraphs Department.

Law and Parliamentary Affairs: The Law Division of this ministry advises the Government on all legal and constitutional matters and on questions of law involved in any specific case or legal problem. All legislative proposals, agreements and other legal instruments are scrutinized by this division, including legal aspects of and constructions to be placed on international agreements. It is this division which advises the Central Government in respect of litigation before the Supreme Court and the High Courts.

The Central Institute of Islamic Research, an autonomous body under this division, was established in 1960 to carry out research in the contribution of Islam to thought, science and culture.

The Islamic Advisory Council was set up in 1962 (as required under Article 199 of the Constitution) with a view to reconstructing the national life on a truly Islamic basis. The council also has the duties of examining all laws in force in the country so as to bring them in conformity with the teachings and requirements of Islam.

The Parliamentary Affairs Division is entrusted with the duties of summoning and prorogation of the National Assembly. On conclusion of each session, it co-ordinates legislative business and parliamentary activities.

The Election Commission, a statutory body for conducting elections to the Basic Democracies, the National and Provincial Assemblies and the Presidential election, is placed, for administrative purposes, under this division.

Health, Labour & Social Welfare: This ministry consists of the two divisions dealing with two distinct but interrelated subjects, namely, Health and Labour, and Social Welfare. The Health Division is responsible for the maintenance of health and medical services. It also deals with foreign Governments and international agencies in relation to public health, medical research and family planning. At Government level, it also deals with the affairs of the Pakistan Red Cross and the Tuberculosis Association. Its work is executed by Directorates of Family Planning and Health Education, and Central Health, Establishment and Stores; Directorates of Malaria Eradication and Tuberculosis Control, and the Directorate of Nutrition and Research. In addition, Nursing Council of Pak-

istan, Central Malaria Eradication Board, Pakistan Medical Research Council and Pakistan Medical Council, all autonomous bodies, are under general direction of this ministry. Recently, the Directorate of Family Planning and Health Education has been raised to the status of a division known as the Family Planning Division under charge of the Minister.

All matters relating to labour and manpower, resettlement of displaced personnel, including demobilized service personnel, employees' social insurance, and war injuries compensation insurance are dealt within the Labour and Social Welfare Department. The Ministry is also concerned with seamen's welfare problems and the institution of social services, and with matters of labour and social research. It maintains contact with international organizations and foreign institutions in these fields. The National Manpower Council is concerned with maximum utilization of human resources in Pakistan and works under this division.

Civil Services: Both in respect of its mode of recruitment and in its structure and functions, the Civil Service of Pakistan is based essentially on the pattern evolved during the period of British rule in the Sub-continent. That it has survived the transition from foreign to national government and has retained intact both its own structure and integrity as well as continuity and stability in administration during a crucial period of transition, is a matter of credit not only to the pattern and the tradition but also to the personnel which manned the Service.

Superior Services: Two distinct cadres constitute the Central Superior Services of Pakistan (a) All-Pakistan services which serve both the Central and provincial Governments and (b) the central services whose duties relate only to the Central Government. The CSP (Civil Service of Pakistan) and the PSP (Police Service of Pakistan) are the two all-Pakistan services. The Pakistan Foreign Service is recruited with the Civil Service of Pakistan but is constituted as a separate cadre. The Foreign Service and Civil Service of Pakistan rank as the two senior-most services, followed by the other superior services, namely, Pakistan Audit and Accounts Service, Pakistan Military Accounts Service, Pakistan Taxation Service, Pakistan Excise and Land Customs Service, Central Secretariat Service, Pakistan Military Lands and Cantonments Service, Pakistan Postal Service and Central Information Service. The last-named was constituted as a distinct cadre in 1965.

Provincial services, which function exclusively under the control of the respective provincial Governments, are quite separate from the central services.

Classification: Public servants are categorized in four different classes, namely, I, II, III and IV. Class I officers are entrusted with positions of highest responsibility and are in most cases authorized to sign Government orders and correspondence involving commitments on behalf of the Government. Class II is the next cadre and is grouped with Class I inasmuch as officers in both Class I and Class II are referred to as Gazetted Officers whose appointment, transfer, promotion and retirement are notified in the Government Gazette. Class III employees generally perform clerical duties. Government

servants of Class IV are messengers, *daftaries*, record sorters and similar categories of personnel.

Members of the Civil Service of Pakistan (CSP) are generally entrusted with administrative posts either in the Secretariat or in the administrative divisions and districts where they represent official authorities. They may also have judicial functions to perform as part of their administrative responsibilities. With increasing awareness of the importance of separating the judiciary from the executive, it was felt that the principle of separation of powers should be duly reflected in the constitution of the Service itself. A Judicial Branch of the CSP was, therefore, created with the express provision that one-third of the total number of posts of district and sessions judges or equivalent categories would be filled by officers of the CSP, one-third by members of the Provincial Civil (Judicial) Service, and the remaining one-third from the Bar. The scheme has been implemented in accordance with a phased programme in which CSP officers, in their fifth year of service, are transferred to judicial posts, though administrative needs form the overriding consideration so that more senior officers may also sometimes be posted to judicial appointments.

Recruitment: Recruitment to gazetted posts is made by the central or provincial public service commissions which hold periodical examinations and interviews for selection to various cadres. To ensure adequate representation of the two provinces and of specific areas within the province of West Pakistan a quota system has been established, with a reservation of 20 per cent of all posts to be filled on the basis of merit only. The quota system is to be reviewed after a period of ten years from the date of the 1962 Constitution.

After final selection by the appropriate public service commission, appointments are made in the name of the President (or the Governor in the case of the provincial services). A period of probation, from one to two years, follows. Thereafter, regular postings are made and promotions awarded on the basis of work and conduct in accordance with service rules. The public service commission is consulted in regard to promotions but the highest positions such as those of secretary and joint secretary are made under the orders of the President.

The normal service period expires at the age of 55 after which Government servants are entitled to the benefit of a provident fund and to a pension for life.

Training: With the advent of Independence and the inauguration of large-scale development programmes, the emphasis in the business of government has shifted to development activity which is now treated as an essential part of administrative responsibility. A corresponding reorientation has, thus, become necessary for the new administrator and the Government has established training institutions for public servants. These are:

(a) Administrative Staff College.
(b) National Institutes of Public Administration (NIPA).
(c) Academies for Rural Development.
(d) Secretariat Training Institute.

An Administrative Training Council has been set up to advise on administrative training and to co-ordinate effort in this behalf. Both apprenticeship training during the probationary period and in-service training for senior staff are provided.

Provincial Government: The provincial governors have their councils of ministers appointed with the concurrence of the President.

In the provincial secretariat, the counterpart of a central division is the department which is headed by a secretary. One or more departments may be assigned to a minister. A chief secretary co-ordinates the activities of all departments of the provincial Government in the field of personnel and general administration.

The provincial Government has full executive authority over the subjects falling within its constitutional powers and field of legislation.

According to the Constitution of 1962, all subjects, not reserved to the Centre, are provincial subjects and are legislated for by the Provincial Assembly. Subjects reserved to the Centre are confined to defence, foreign relations, trade, communications and finance. In matters such as agriculture, industry and development planning generally, the work of the Central ministries largely consists in assisting the provincial Governments and guiding them in respect of overall planning and policy. Departments and organizations like the Railways, Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation and Water and Power Development Authority, which formerly used to be Centrally administered, have been made provincial responsibilities.

The provinces, like the Centre, have a consolidated fund, make their own budgets and are responsible for receipt and disbursement of their own revenues. The Centre augments these with proportionate grants from its own funds.

Administrative Divisions: For purposes of local government the provinces are divided into divisions and divisions into districts. These are placed under the executive control of officers of appropriate rank and authority. In matters of general administration, maintenance of law and order, internal security and collection of revenue, the commissioners of divisions and the deputy commissioners (or collectors) of districts exercise full authority, being responsible only to the provincial Government. In East Pakistan, districts are divided into sub-divisions and thanas while in West Pakistan, the tehsil units are administered by tehsildars and naib-tehsildars. In the old Sind area, there are sub-divisions and tehsils, the tehsils being in charge of mukhtiarkars.

Most executive powers of the provincial Government find themselves located in and exercised through these units of administration. Detailed decisions concerning law and order and the administration of social services are carried through at these levels. Specific powers of the executive authority at these levels, as well as area-jurisdictions, are subject to revision from time to time in accordance with current requirements and administrative convenience.

In recent years, this has been frequently resorted to, as part of the policy of revitalization of the administration and as part of the programme of administrative reform launched by President Ayub Khan. The general tendency has been towards decentralization of authority and placing of more and more powers in the hands of local authorities. At the same time, steps have been taken to provide a popular, democratic base for this authority by associating properly elected representatives of the people with the actual exercise of governmental functions at each successive stage and at levels where these functions take practical shape and enter the lives of the people.

Basic Democracies: A separate chapter deals in full detail with the philosophy and functions of the Basic Democracy system as it has developed since it was introduced by President Ayub Khan in 1959. Inasmuch, however, as Basic Democracies constitute units of administration in the country at local levels, their structure and organization must also be mentioned here.

The system divides the whole country into administrative units having 800 to 1,200 electors whose representatives also serve the constitutional purpose of electing the President and members of the National and Provincial Assemblies. For the rest, they are units of popular administration at the local levels and work on a four-tier, pyramidal basis. At present there are 80,000 such wards electing one representative or Basic Democrat each. Recent legislation has raised the number of the basic democrats, for the purposes of the next general election to 120,000. In accordance with the principle of parity between the two provinces, this number is divided equally between them.

The lowest rung of the ladder is the Union Council in the villages, constituted by the ward representatives. In towns of less than 14,000 population, the Union Council is termed the Town Committee, whereas in bigger towns and cities, it is known as the Union Committee. Each such council or committee elects a Chairman from among its members and these chairmen are executive heads of the body discharging administrative and judicial functions allotted to them.

The chairmen of the union committees or councils, together with some official members representing nation-building departments, namely, education, health, agriculture, constitute the Tehsil Council in West Pakistan and Thana Council in East Pakistan. The original provision, adding nominated members to the Tehsil or Thana Council, has been dispensed with, but the council is headed, by the administrative head of a thana or tehsil, namely, the Sub-divisional officer or the Tehsildar, as the case may be.

The next tier in the system of Basic Democracy is the Municipal Committee in towns and cities of more than 14,000 people. The chairmen of all the union committees within the municipal limits of a particular town are members of the Municipal Committee which also has its quota of official members as well as other elected members representing special classes of interests, such as women, minorities and social workers. The Municipal Committee is presided over by an officially appointed chair-

man, but there is a vice-chairman elected by non-official members.

The next tier, in all cases, is the District Council composed of elected and official members representing departments concerned with development work in the district. It has been decided that in future the elected members of the District Council will be chosen by an electoral college consisting of the chairmen of the union councils and town committees. Provision has also been made for broadening the base of this structure in the tribal areas.

Next come divisional councils. These also consist of elected members and officials. It has now been provided that the elected members of a Divisional Council should be separately chosen from each district within the division by members of (a) district councils, (b) municipal committees and cantonment boards. Every person on the electoral roll, except officials, is eligible for election, provided that the same person cannot be a member of both the district and divisional councils.

Functions: In accordance with the general policy of decentralization of administration and the increasing association of the people with public life, the functions and responsibilities of various tiers of Basic Democracies are being constantly revised and expanded. A long list of direct executive functions has been allotted to union councils and committees with respect to law and order, as well as judicial administration. The Family Laws Ordinance and the Family Courts Ordinançe, as well as Conciliation Courts depend entirely on these bodies which are also responsible for registration of births, marriages and deaths, maintenance of common village lands and burial grounds, maintenance of public highways and thoroughfares within their jurisdiction, arrangements for water supply, sanitation measures and so on. The higher tiers function mainly as co-ordinative and consultative bodies.

The overall orientation of the entire system heavily underlines the development functions of local government, reaching into social and economic fields, that is, health and education, family planning and sanitation, social uplift and welfare, eradication of social evils as well as direct initiation of economic development plans for their localities, promotion of village industries, distribution of fertilizers and irrigation water, construction of irrigation channels, tube-wells and local roads.

For all these functions, the Basic Democracies have the power to collect their own taxes and their operations are subsidized by the Central and provincial Governments.

Elections

THE CONSTITUTION of Pakistan provides for the creation of an electoral college as a first step towards the election of the President and of the members of the National and the two provincial Assemblies.

Barring persons of unsound mind, all Pakistani citizens 21 years of age and over will exercise their fundamental political right to vote between September 21 and October 1, 1969.

Among the electorate, for the first time next year, will be those young men and women whose birth synchronized with the emergence of Pakistan as an independent country in 1947.

For purposes of election to the Electoral College, the Election Commission has delimited 120,000 units, 60,000 in each province, having regard to territorial unity, distribution of population and administrative convenience.

The 120,000 electoral units for the 1969 elections represent an advance over the last elections, held in 1964, elections being held every five years. Each unit will be formed with an average population of 847 in East Pakistan and 715 in West Pakistan as against 1,275 and 1,072, respectively, during the 1964 elections. These averages, however, do not take into account major shifts of population that have taken place during recent years.

The voters in each electoral unit will elect, from amongst themselves, a person who is not less than 25 years of age, and whose merit they recognize because they have observed his conduct, and watched his work, in matters of immediate concern to them, from close

range. Those who are elected will be known as Members of the Electoral College (MECs).

Within 20 days of the election, the results will be published in the Gazette and each member of the College will "swear that when called upon to cast my vote in an election, I will make my choice between the several candidates for election honestly, without regard to personal gain or interest, and without fear or favour, affection or ill-will, and will cast my vote in favour of the candidate who, in my honest judgement, has the greatest concern for the solidarity, integrity, well-being and prosperity of Pakistan, is the most honest, reliable and conscientious in his personal affairs and is most to be trusted to act in the public interest."

Thus by October 20, 1969, will come into existence the Electoral College of Pakistan consisting of 120,000 MECs, marking the completion of the first stage and foundation of the electoral structure.

Before proceeding further with the description of the final stages of the elections, it will be useful to have a bird's eye view of the mechanics of the whole process. The Election Commission has been entrusted "to make such arrangements as are necessary to ensure that the election is conducted honestly, justly, fairly and in accordance with the law and that corrupt practices are guarded against."

The whole election machinery is geared to this constitutional obligation. The Chief Election Commissioner is bound by the oath of his office to "discharge my duties, and perform my functions, honestly, to the best of my ability, faithfully in accordance with the Constitution and the law, and without fear or favour, affection or ill-will, and that I will not allow my personal interest to influence my official conduct or my official decisions."

The Chief Election Commissioner, in consultation with the provincial Governments, has already constituted Provincial Election Authorities and has delegated such powers as will enable them to function smoothly and expeditiously. In addition to these Provincial Election Authorities, four Deputy Election Commissioners have been appointed in each province. They are posted at all divisional headquarters in East Pakistan and at Peshawar, Lahore, Hyderabad and Bahawalpur in West Pakistan. Karachi division and Mekran district of Kalat division have been entrusted to the care of the Deputy Regional Election Commissioner of Karachi.

Many of the stages through which the election process had to pass have already been covered. Work on the delimitation of units was started on 13 March, 1968, and the preliminary list of electoral units was published on May 16. All objections and suggestions will be disposed of by the Appellate Authorities by August 15.

Enumeration for the revision of the electoral rolls will start on November 1, and the draft rolls will be published by December 16.

Before the end of 1968, the Provincial Election Authorities will have finally delimited the constituencies and the



President Ayub stands in a queue to cast his vote on November 9, 1964.

electoral rolls prepared on the basis of the fresh population figures supplied by the provincial Governments.

If the elections to the Electoral College in 1964 are examined as a guide, the next elections are likely to be keenly contested. In 1964, the electorate consisted of 47,918,500 voters. Leaving aside the uncontested elections which represented 7,467,488 registered voters, 169,117 persons contested the elections. In all 31,417,002 votes were cast and the percentage of polling was 77.67.

It is, of course, misleading to regard all non-voters as politically indifferent beings. Death, illness, removal and inaccuracies in the register will prevent a 100 per cent poll. Experience in Belgium and Australia, where voting is compulsory, suggests that in democratic countries the effective maximum is a poll of about 90 per cent. If, in 1964, the voting percentage in Pakistan was 77.67, then in 1969 it is likely to be very much more and this will be good enough as an indication of the interest evinced by the nation in the elections to provide a Government for the

nation for the next five years on sound and democratic lines.

Presidential Elections: The next stage will be reached in the early part of 1970 when the 120,000 electors, i.e. the Members of the Electoral College, elected on the basis of adult franchise, will be asked to indicate their choice, through secret ballot, for the man whom they wish to be their First Citizen for the next five years.

In keeping with the Constitutional provision for the election of the President, the Election Commission will consist of (a) the Chief Election Commissioner, who shall be the Chairman of the Commission; and (b) a Judge of the Court of the Province of East Pakistan and a Judge of the Province of West Pakistan, each of whom shall be appointed by the President after consultation with the Chief Justice of the High Court concerned and with the Chief Election Commissioner.

In 1964, the President appointed an Election Commission with Mr. G. Mueenuddin, the Chief Election Commissioner, as Chairman and Mr. Justice Mujibur Rahman Khan of the East Pakistan High Court and Mr. Justice Sardar Mohammad Iqbal of the West Pakistan High Court as members.

There were seven candidates for the office. But there is a provision in the Constitution (Article 167) that "if the number of candidates for election to the office of President (excluding the sitting President if he is also a candidate) exceeds three, the Commissioner shall inform the Speaker of the National Assembly of the fact and the Speaker shall forthwith convene a joint sitting of the Members of the National Assembly and of the Provincial Assemblies (or, if the National Assembly has been dissolved, of the Provincial Assemblies only) to select three of the candidates for election."

The number of validly-nominated candidates being seven, a reference under the Constitutional provision would have become essential. However, three persons withdrew their candidature.

This left four candidates — Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan, Mohtarama Miss Fatima Jinnah, Mr. K. M. Kamal and Mian Bashir Ahmed — in the field to contest the highest office in Pakistan.

The Election Commission is required, under Article 173 of the Constitution, "(a) that each candidate at an election has the opportunity, and so far as practicable, equal opportunity with other candidates, of addressing persons who are entitled to vote at the election; and (b) that the persons entitled to vote at the election have the opportunity of questioning each candidate, face to face."

Projection Meetings: This unique feature of the Constitution was complied with by the Election Commission by arranging projection meetings at 10 important places in December, 1964.

The first meeting was held in Rawalpindi on December 8. Other projection meetings in West Pakistan were organized in Peshawar (attended by MECs from the tribal areas as also from the settled districts of the former NWFP), in Lahore, Multan, Hyderabad and



A vote being cast in the elections of 1964.

Karachi. In East Pakistan, the projection meetings took place in Chittagong, Khulna, Rajshahi and Dacca.

The meetings in West Pakistan were presided over by Mr. Justice Mohammad Iqbal while Mr. Justice M.R. Khan presided over the meetings held in East Pakistan. These meetings were attended by 76.67 per cent of the electors.

At each of these meetings, 75 minutes were allotted to each candidate: 35 minutes to address the audience, 10 minutes for the audience to write their questions on slips of paper. The candidate was permitted to answer as many questions as possible within the 30 minutes left from the time allotted to him.

The election to the office of the President was held on Saturday, January 2, 1965. The polling percentage was 99.63. Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan was declared elected. He secured 63.31 per cent of valid votes, Mohtarama Fatima Jinnah 36.36 per cent, Mr. K. M. Kamal .23 per cent and Mian Bashir Ahmed .08 per cent.

Assemblies: The next and final stage in the general election is the poll to the National and Provincial Assemblies.

The Constitution is silent on whether elections to the National Assembly or the Provincial Assemblies should be held first. The elections to the National Assembly were held first on March 21 and the results were published within four days, that is, on March 25, 1965.

The elections to both the Provincial Assemblies were held on May 13 and the results were announced on May 20, 1965.

As was done in the case of the election of the President, projection meetings were organized for candidates to the Provincial Assemblies, where the candidates addressed the electors and the electors asked questions.

Although the pattern will remain the same, this time the canvas has been substantially enlarged. While the electorate in the case of the National Assembly consisted of 80,000 persons in both zones for 156 seats, there will now be 120,000 electors. The number of seats in the National Assembly has also been increased from 156 to 218.

The National Assembly which will come into being, as a result of the elections in 1970, will consist of 218 members, one half of whom will be elected from each province.

Four, instead of three, of the seats of members for each province shall be reserved exclusively for women. But this does not mean that a woman will be ineligible for election to any other seat in the National Assembly.

A new feature of the 1970 National Assembly will be: "Five of the seats of members for each province shall be reserved for persons who have held office as President, Speaker of an Assembly, Governor or Minister, or have acquired high academic distinction in art, science or literature, or have knowledge and practical experience of not less than ten years in the field of law, medicine, engineering or journalism; but this clause shall not be construed as making any such person ineligible for election to any other seat in the National Assembly."

Similarly, the East and West Pakistan Assemblies will also comprise 218 members each. Eight of the seats in each Assembly will be reserved for women and another 10 seats for men of outstanding ability as described above in the case of the National Assembly.

These changes regarding the composition of the National and Provincial Assemblies have been brought about by the Constitution (Eighth Amendment) Act of 1967.

The elections as a whole will be completed by the middle of 1970. A rough idea of the cost involved can be had from the expenditure incurred in 1964-65.

A total expenditure of Rs. 12.78 million was incurred on elections of the Members of the Electoral College: in East Pakistan Rs. 9.22 million, in West Pakistan Rs. 3.55 million. The expenditure was shared equally by the provincial and the Central Governments. On an average, Rs. 159.80 was spent in electing an Elector and the expenditure works out to 13 paisas per head of population.

The Presidential poll cost the national

exchequer Rs. 1.97 million. This does not include the recurring expenses on the staff of the Commission and its regional offices nor does this figure take into account the expenditure incurred by the provincial Governments and district officers.

In the case of the National and Provincial Assemblies, a total amount of Rs. 468,533 was spent; Rs. 202,403 on election to seats for the National Assembly and Rs. 266,130 on polls to the Provincial Assemblies.

What is the justification for all this complex machinery and the sizeable expenditure involved? Because free elections are a part, and an essential ingredient, of democracy. They are a device of the highest value, because no one has invented a better political contrivance for securing two conditions necessary for the maintenance of government in large societies. First, elections create a sentiment of popular consent and participation in public affairs even though government is too complex a process to be known to the ordinary citizen. Secondly, elections can provide for orderly succession in government by the peaceful transfer of authority.

Foreign Policy

PAKISTAN'S foreign policy has, in recent years, acquired a new look. The country's external relations are no longer based on rigid attitudes; they are now an internally consistent unity, guided as it is by a sense of realism and national interest. The guiding principles are: independence of action, non-involvement in big-power conflicts, recognition of geopolitical compulsions, closer ties with the Muslim world and Afro-Asian states, strict adherence to the United Nations Charter and quest for peace, justice and international equality.

In pursuit of these objectives Pakistan has lately readjusted its relations with all powers, big and small. Explaining this country's stand, President Ayub observed some time ago, "We do not want to get involved in the hot or cold wars of the Big Powers. We have enough problems of our own. It is in our national interest to have friendly relations with all countries, particularly with our neighbours. The promotion of this interest is the cornerstone of our foreign policy."

Thus, Pakistan has progressively normalized relations with the socialist states, responded to the dictates of the proximity of China and the Soviet Union, has sought to reorient its older alliances, has placed greater reliance on bilateralism, regional cohesion and Afro-Asian kinship, and taken an independent stand on major world issues. This has furbished the country's image abroad.

In reorienting its foreign policy, Pakistan has also tried to make it a dynamic instrument of "security and development" — the twin objectives which find particular mention in President Ayub's autobiography *Friends Not Masters*.

Relations with Big Powers: In this age of polycentrism, no country can afford to remain isolated, much less a small nation with limited resources. Nor can any state ignore its geopolitical circumstances. Lying as it does in close proximity to three major powers, Pakistan has learnt the hard way that its external relations must be balanced and realistic. Naturally, it wants to steer clear of the rivalries of Great Powers, to have normal relations with them without compromising its independence of action and seeks accession of strength by relying not on expediency but on stable factors that can be expected to hold. In this delicate undertaking which calls for honesty and integrity, Pakistan has gained considerable ground in a short time.

China: Among Pakistan's big neighbours is China, the biggest power in Asia. The two countries have centuries-old ties which were snapped after the advent of western colonialism in Asia. With the rise to power of the People's Republic of China in 1949 it became imperative for Pakistan to establish friendly relations with it. Pakistan extended early recognition to Peking and championed its cause in the United Nations. The relations between the two countries remained pleasant though formal. It was in 1963 that these relations took a decisive turn. President Ayub decided to demarcate the boundary between China and Pakistan in a spirit of understanding and accommodation which was fully reciprocated by the Chinese leaders. The Pak-China

Chairman Mao Tse-tung receives President Ayub on his visit to China in 1965.



border thus became "a border of peace and tranquility". It is this accord which brought the two countries together and advanced the negotiations which led to the boundary agreement that brought the two heads of states close to each other. This mutual understanding and respect has continued to grow. The border trade, aviation, economic and cultural agreements have opened new avenues of Sino-Pakistan co-operation. Peking's whole-hearted support to the people of Kashmir to decide their future on the basis of self-determination, its forthright condemnation of Indian aggression against Pakistan in 1965 and its offer to stand by this country to deter any aggression in future, have all contributed to mutual amity.

The general trade agreement signed in early 1963 has reinforced economic bonds between the two nations. The opening of the air route in 1964, followed by a direct shipping service, has demolished old barriers. The grant of an interest-free US $60 million loan, in 1965, for the import of Chinese equipment, machinery and technical assistance, particularly for the first heavy mechanical complex at Taxila, has given an impetus to this country's striving towards self-reliance. The trade protocol signed in 1966 has maximized the two-way traffic of goods.

During 1967-68 the scope of bilateral co-operation in industrial, technological, cultural and socio-economic fields has perceptibly widened. In August 1967, Peking offered to supply 100,000 tons of rice to help Pakistan tide over its food deficit; soon afterwards a pact was signed to train Pakistani design engineers and technical personnel for the Taxila mechanical complex. In September the annual cultural exchange programme was concluded; under this programme a two-year course in the Chinese language was instituted at the Peshawar University to enrich Pakistan's cultural life and help it to benefit from China's advancement in various fields. A similar course will shortly be introduced at the Dacca University. In October 1967 an agreement was signed to reopen the traditional overland route linking Gilgit with Sinkiang, popularly known as the "Silk Route" which was closed during World War II. This coincided with the arrival of a high-powered Chinese trade delegation in Karachi to pave the way for closer economic co-operation. A barter pact was signed in April this year to step up the volume of trade.

The graph of Pakistan's trade with China continues to move upwards; its imports have gone up from Rs. 19.8 million in 1956-57 to Rs.159.3 million in 1966-67, while exports have jumped from Rs. 46.3 million to over Rs. 221 million during the same decade showing a favourable trade balance of Rs. 62 million a year. Last year the volume of trade touched a new peak. Lately, cotton yarn and jute manufactures replaced raw material in the exports from Pakistan and in the coming years China is likely to absorb more manufactured and semi-manufactured goods because it has successfully switched over now to the manufacture of relatively more sophisticated goods for export.

China is also taking a keen interest in Pakistan's heavy industry programme. In December, 1967, a seven-member

economic mission went to Peking to explore the possibility of securing Chinese assistance for basic industries to be set up under the current and future Five-Year Plans. This was followed by the announcement that a heavy foundry and forge project would be set up at Taxila with the Chinese aid. An agreement for a 41-million-dollar loan was also signed. In June 1968 Pakistan's Defence Minister, Mr. A. R. Khan, told the National Assembly that, in East Pakistan, ordnance factories were being set up on schedule with China's help. This is yet another important step to make Pakistan self-reliant.

Besides forging closer economic links, the two countries are actively promoting cultural ties. Since the signing of their Cultural Agreement, over 40 delegations have been exchanged. A goodwill delegation headed by Khwaja Shahabuddin, Central Information Minister, participated in the 18th Anniversary of the founding of the People's Republic of China. On this occasion the Chinese leaders assured Pakistan of their moral and material support in its struggle ahead.

Pakistan, on its part, has continued to support China's entry into the UN. In the General Assembly in November, 1967, Pakistan again sponsored a resolution, along with Albania and other powers, for the restoration of China's rights. The resolution was, however, lost by 58 to 45 votes. Addressing the Assembly, Pakistan's chief delegate observed that time is running in favour of Peking and only by bringing it into the UN can the world body harmonize conflicting interests of nations, remove international tensions and perform the basic functions for which it has been created.

USSR: Pakistan's initiative in reshaping its foreign policy and readjusting it to the geopolitical situation has evoked appreciation in the Soviet Union, which has lately been taking a more active interest in Asian affairs. This has helped the cementing of Pakistan-Soviet relations.

The turning point in Pakistan-Soviet relations came with the first visit of Pakistan's President to the Kremlin in April 1965. It dispelled suspicions, established new contacts and paved the way for a new trade pact, and a fresh Soviet credit of 30 million dollars. There was a visible change in the Soviet attitude towards this region. For the first time it offered to mediate in Indo-Pakistan disputes and sponsored the Tashkent Declaration in January 1966. In subsequent years Pakistan-Soviet co-operation has continued to grow in depth.

The President's visit to the USSR in September 1967 added depth and a new dimension to the growing pattern of bilateral ties. Moscow proposed substantial increase in economic co-operation and trade extending up to 1975. The two countries adopted a common stand on the Middle East crisis in May-June 1967, and on the question of controlling the spread of nuclear weapons. Both stressed the need to strengthen UN's effectiveness as an instrument for the maintenance of international peace and security. Pakistan threw its weight on the side of the right of the Viet-Namese to decide their future without outside interference. Moreover, the visit help-

ed to create greater appreciation in Moscow of Pakistan's viewpoint on major Indo-Pakistan disputes and an acknowledgement of this country's genuine desire to have peaceful bilateral relations with neighbours without affecting its ties with others.

A notable feature of the Soviet Union's interest in this region is its concern for the uninterrupted development of Pakistan. During 1967-68 it has taken a number of steps to consolidate economic relations. A new three-year trade pact was signed in February 1968, envisaging an overall trade turnover of Rs. 300 million; Russia has agreed to absorb Pakistani manufactures and semi-manufactures which will constitute 50 per cent of the entire exports. Bilateral trade will now be 10 times more than what it was in 1956-57.

Soviet assistance in geological survey and oil and gas prospecting has helped this country to find gas in Rawalpindi, Karachi and Chittagong. More significant is the financial and technical aid being extended by USSR to execute some important projects under the Third Plan. It has undertaken to set up two electrical complexes in East and West Pakistan — the one at Taxila will cost over Rs. 130 million — to prepare a feasibility report for the Rooppur nuclear power plant in East Pakistan and to give technical and economic aid for the construction of the Kalabagh steel plant in West Pakistan which will cost Rs. 1,400 million and will have an annual capacity of one million tons.

The new phase of collaboration has received an impetus from the visit of the Soviet Prime Minister, Mr. Alexi Kosygin, to Pakistan in April 1968. He pledged to continue Soviet help so that Pakistan's dependence on imports may be reduced and the stage of self-sufficiency brought nearer. Soviet economic aid during the Second and Third Plans has already exceeded 175 million dollars.

Cultural contacts between Pakistan and Russia have also been growing; exchanges have now been organized on a regular basis. An agreement on cultural co-operation was signed in 1965 and followed up by a new pact in April, 1968, for cultural, educational, scientific exchange. Currently, 15 Soviet scholars are reported to be writing a contemporary history of Pakistan. About 240 editions of the works of Pakistani writers, medieval and modern, have already been published in the Soviet Union. These publications and the scholarly exchange programmes are likely to promote greater understanding among the two countries.

Another link in the chain of growing relations was the first-ever visit to Pakistan in 1968 of two Russian naval ships. This has been followed by the visit to Moscow of a high-powered military delegation of Pakistan, led by General Yahya Khan, Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army, amid reports that Soviet Russia has agreed to fill some gaps in Pakistan's defences by selling (on credit) some items of military equipment.

The reports of this decision of the Soviet Union have sparked off a campaign of protests and intimidation throughout India, possibly with the connivance of the Indian Government. The purpose of this campaign is to



Prime Minister Alexi Kosygin of the U.S.S.R. proposing a toast at the dinner given in his honour at the President's Guest House in April 1968.

make the Soviet Union go back on this decision and to discourage further growth of the Pakistan-Soviet relations. But all indications point towards the Soviet Government holding firm in its assessment of the respective stances of Pakistan and India, particularly about the effects on the balance of power in the Sub-continent of the continued military build up by India under its so-called five-year Defence Plan.

USA: Pakistan's strategic position on the map of Asia has attracted both the Super-Powers. The United States in particular showed keen interest in this country's problems at a time when it was in dire need of economic and military aid for development and defence. Relations between the two countries steadily ripened after USA helped to stave off the food crisis in Pakistan in 1953. In 1954 the Mutual Defence Assistance Agreement was signed; later Pakistan entered SEATO and CENTO alliances sponsored by the US recognizing its defence perimeter to extend from the Far East to Europe. This alignment brought the chapter of this country's neutral

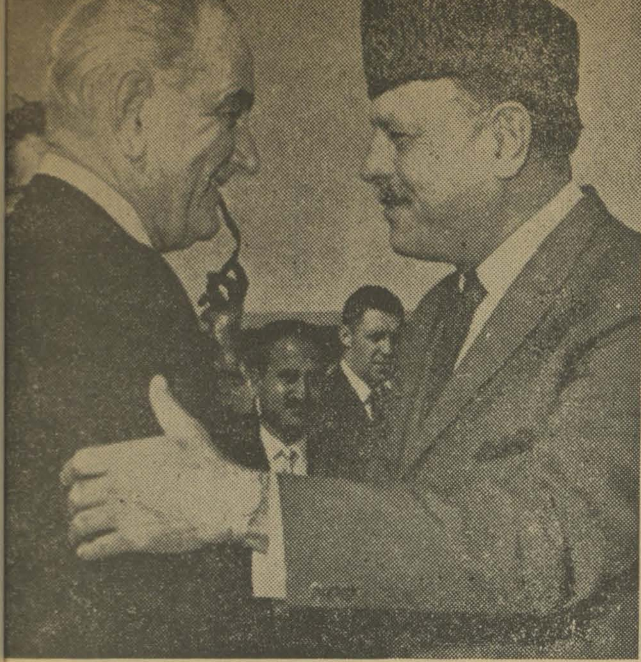
foreign policy to a close. But it did experience an accession of military strength.

However, Pakistan chiefly needed a defensive shield against India, not against China and Russia. It was the latter which figured in the American global strategy while the former did not. This divergence of interests was brought into sharp focus after the Sino-Indian conflict of 1962. The United States began to provide substantial arms aid to India to the detriment of the military balance in this region and exposing Pakistan to new threats; in consequence, Pakistan-US relations were strained. In 1965, USA suspended economic aid to this country; later, on the outbreak of the Indo-Pakistan war it placed an embargo on the supply of military aid also.

It was not until President Ayub Khan's visit to Washington in December 1965 that better understanding was restored. There was greater appreciation of the fact that Pakistan lay close to three major states, and as such could not ignore geopolitical compulsions and jeopardize its sovereignty and integrity in the process. This realization gave a new look to Pakistan-US relations.

A significant gesture of US respect and concern for Pakistan was the short but purposeful visit of President Johnson to this country on December 23, 1967. On his return journey from Australia he stopped at Karachi to confer with President Ayub on matters of mutual interest, including Pakistan-India relations. The two Presidents reviewed the world situation and discussed Pakistan's additional needs of food and development. Soon afterwards the two countries signed a new PL 480 agreement for supply to Pakistan of half-a-million tons of US wheat and other items valued at 40 million dollars. The payment was stipulated in Pakistani currency. In February 1968, an investment and trade mission from the US visited Pakistan and brought over 150 proposals for trade and joint ventures. In the meantime, US commodity and project aid, which had been frozen since 1965, began to flow again. In March 1968, an agreement was signed under which Pakistan was to get a 115-million-dollar commodity aid by the end of the fiscal year 1967-68. The United States also agreed to resume project aid worth 20 to 25 million dollars. On May 16, another agreement was signed for the supply of 400,000 tons of US wheat in addition to the 1.75 million tons of food-grains supplied since May 1967.

For the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1968, the prospects of US aid appears to have brightened. Secretary Dean Rusk pleaded before Congress in May 1968 that more funds be allocated to Pakistan. Despite the cut in US foreign aid programmes which may be of the order of 1,500 million dollars, Washington is likely to pledge a big share in the Consortium aid for this country's development projects. Pakistan's request for 550-million-dollar assistance was endorsed by the members of the Consortium in June 1968. The Consortium countries have also agreed to finance the Tarbela Project; the US pledge of contribution to this massive project has helped to generate support from other sources.



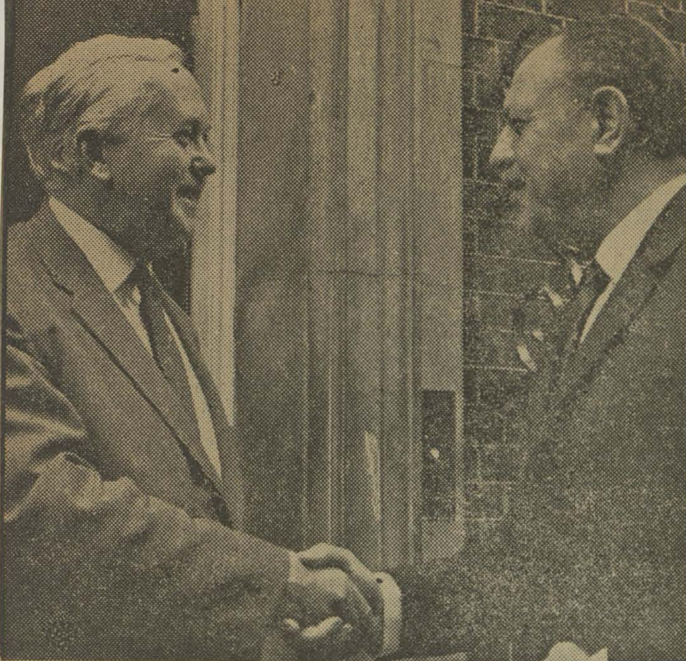
President Ayub receives United States President Lyndon B. Johnson at Karachi Airport on December 23, 1967.

Both in Pakistan and the US there is now a keenness to maintain friendly ties on the principle of equality, respect for sovereignty and mutuality of interests. Thus, Pakistan's decision in April 1968 not to renew the lease of the American telecommunications base at Peshawar, which expires next year, has not affected the goodwill on either side.

United Kingdom: Pakistan's relations with the UK have remained normal. The British Government continues to uphold the principle of self-determination in Kashmir. It played a positive role in the resolution of the Rann of Kutch dispute: in the conflict of September 1965, Prime Minister Wilson declared that India had committed aggression against Pakistan.

In the economic field, Britain pledged over 64 million dollars during the Third Plan, its share during 1967-68 being 19.2 million dollars. Under the Colombo Plan it has loaned over £100 million. Pakistan has also received interest-free loans from the UK amounting to eight million pounds. The technical assistance and funds extended by Britain for the Indus Basin Project carry soft terms.

The trade channels between the two countries are well established and Britain is still Pakistan's second biggest trading partner. During 1966-67, Pakistan's imports from Britain stood at Rs. 680 million while exports were estimated at Rs. 352 million leaving a deficit of Rs. 328 million. If Britain joins the ECM in keeping with its



Britain's Prime Minister Wilson greeting President Ayub at 10, *Downing Street during the President's visit to London in July* 1968.

decision in 1967, Pakistan's goods which now enter UK almost free of duty, under the system of Commonwealth preference, are likely to be subjected to a uniform ECM import duty. The Government of Pakistan has therefore conveyed to the British Government the concern it feels insisting that reasonable guarantees be given to safeguard the interests of old trading partners. In October 1967 a UK trade mission visited Pakistan, followed by a 14-member delegation of British industrialists and businessmen in February 1968.

An issue which deeply affects the traditional Commonwealth ties is the future of 175,000 Pakistanis in Britain. It is to be hoped that the interests of these immigrants and of Commonwealth students will be safeguarded.

France: The growing community of interests between Pakistan and France received further impetus from the President's official visit to France in October 1967. In November, 1967, President de Gaulle called for "a just and equitable" solution of the Kashmir problem and declared that peace cannot be ensured unless the people's right of self-determination is respected. (It may be recalled that in September 1965, France had, as a Permanent Member of the Security Council, urged that the cause of the Indo-Pakistan conflict be resolved as a logical corollary to the cease fire). President Mohammad Ayub Khan and President Charles de Gaulle

expressed broadly similar views on major world issues, notably the war in Viet-Nam, the Middle East crisis and the economic aspirations of the emergent states.

France has endorsed the decisions of the first UNCTAD and accordingly endeavoured in recent years to increase its credit to Pakistan and the volume of trade with this country. Pakistan's exports to France were valued at Rs. 81.4 million and imports Rs. 108.7 million during 1966-67. As for aid, Pakistan has received nearly 90 million dollars from France, including 47.1 million pledged for the first three years of the current Plan. The terms of assistance hitherto remain 10 years at 5.25 per cent interest, including export insurance. France has also pledged 35 million dollars for the Tarbela project.

West Germany: Another European power whose economic, cultural and political relations with Pakistan are growing at a rapid pace is West Germany. It is the largest assistance giving country, after USA, in the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium. It has contributed 166 million dollars during the first three years of the Third Plan, its contribution in 1967-68 being 38.8 million dollars. It has also pledged 50

President Ayub with France's President de Gaulle in Paris on October 17, 1968.



million dollars for the Tarbela Dam project. The total inflow of German capital in this country exceeds 360 million dollars. This contribution has assumed added significance because it has helped to execute a number of big projects in industry and agriculture.

The identity of outlook between the two countries was brought into sharp focus when the West German Chancellor, Dr. Kurt Georg Kiesinger, visited Pakistan in November, 1967. He took note of the present state of Indo-Pakistan relations and expressed concern at the growing military imbalance in the Sub-continent. In the joint communique, issued after his talks with Pakistan's President, particular stress was laid on abjuring resort to force and applying the principle of self-determination in resolving international disputes. It was in this context that the Kashmir dispute and the problem of German reunification figured in the communique. To rectify the present trade imbalance between Pakistan and West Germany (Pakistan's exports to West Germany during 1967-68 amounted to Rs. 114 million while imports stood at Rs. 457 million), the Chancellor agreed to institute studies at expert level. He also agreed to intensify economic collaboration by expanding technical, scientific and cultural contacts. It was decided that the foreign ministers of the two countries would meet at regular intervals to cement friendly ties further.

In 1967, the German Minister for Federal Affairs, Dr. Carlo Schmid, the President of the Bundestag, Dr. Eugen Gerstenmier, State Secretary in the German Foreign Ministry, Dr. Rolf Lahor, and a five-member Economic Committee of the German Parliament visited Pakistan. From Pakistan, the Food Minister, Mr. A. H. M. S. Doha, went to Germany for seeking further assistance in agriculture, the key sector of Pakistan's economy. These visits have been fruitful in promoting understanding.

Other Western Countries: Among other Western states which continue to participate in Pakistan's development effort are: Canada, which has provided 106 million dollar assistance as a member of the Consortium for the first three years of the current Plan; Italy, which has offered 79.7 million dollars during the same period and the Netherlands and Belgium, whose respective contributions are 14.3 million and 11.1 million dollars until 1967-68.

With most of these countries, Pakistan has also developed closer cultural contacts and mutually advantageous trade ties. Though collaboration with Scandinavia, Spain, Switzerland, Ireland and others has been comparatively limited, efforts have recently been made to widen the area of cooperation with them.

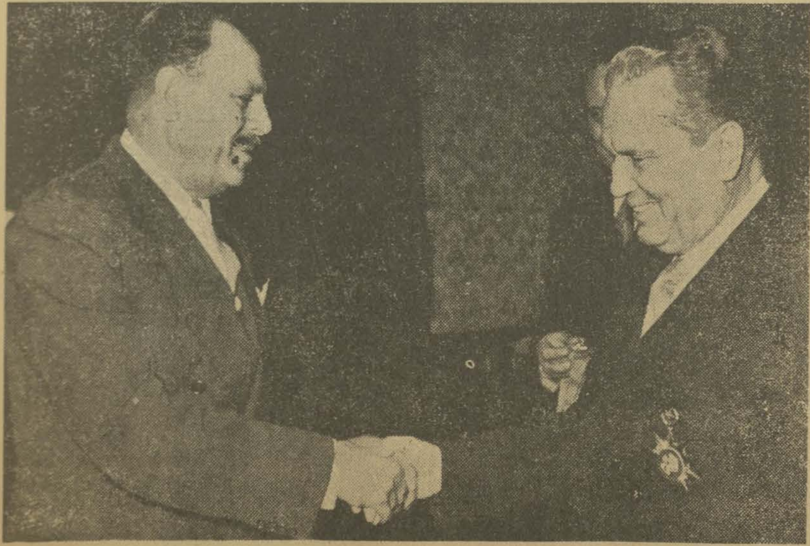
Eastern Europe: The aid pledged by the socialist states during the first three years of the Third Plan has risen to nearly 40 per cent of the entire external assistance, as against five per cent in the last year of the Second Plan. According to the latest statistics, Pakistan has secured loans worth 407 million dollars from the socialist countries by June 30, 1968. During 1967-68, while Russia pledged 134 million dollars and China 47.2 million, Czechoslovakia pledged 48.3 million, Poland 14 million and Yugoslavia 131.5 million dollars.

In the sphere of trade, Pakistan's exports to the socialist states of Europe jumped up from Rs. 84 million in 1962-63 to Rs. 307 million in 1966-67 and imports from Rs. 87 million to Rs. 347 million over the same period.

The following table illustrates the country-wise breakdown of 1966-67 trade with Eastern Europe (In million rupees):

Country	Imports	Exports	Balance
USSR	179.2	137.2	—42
Poland	57.2	57.9	+ 0.7
Czechoslovakia	32.5	26.6	— 5.9
Hungary	17.1	12.5	— 4.6
Romania	15.5	18.2	+ 2.7
Bulgaria	17.0	20.1	+ 3.1
Yugoslavia	27.6	29.5	+ 1.9
Albania	.4	—	— 0.4
East Germany	.5	5.1	+ 4.6
Total	347.0	307.1	—39.9

President Ayub greeting Marshal Tito of Yugoslavia when he visited Pakistan in January 1968.



It is estimated that trade with the socialist states will increase at the rate of 10 to 12 per cent a year by 1970. Between April 1967 and March 1968 Pakistan signed new trade agreements with Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Poland, USSR and China. A significant feature of these agreements is that in most of these, Pakistani manufactures will constitute over 50 per cent of exports, while imports will comprise machinery, equipment and other essential goods.

Along with the expansion of Pakistan's economic ties with the East European states, understanding has been growing in other fields also. In October 1967, when Pakistan's President visited Romania, the principle of self-determination was upheld with special reference to Kashmir. The joint communique issued at the end of the President's visit also urged the peaceful settlement of the Middle East crisis, the banishing of nuclear threats, and the representation of China at the United Nations. It stressed the need to develop bilateral relations irrespective of differences in political systems.

In January 1968, the Yugoslav President, Marshal Tito, paid his first State visit to Pakistan. After his talks with President Ayub, he expressed the hope that Indo-Pakistan disputes will be resolved in the light of the Tashkent Declaration and that lasting peace will be established in the region to advance the goal of people's well-being. The two leaders called for the immediate withdrawal of Israeli forces from the occupied Arab lands and stressed the urgency of bridging the widening gulf between the affluent and indigent nations of the world. This visit has served to promote the growth of equitable economic co-operation between Pakistan and Yugoslavia.

The rapid and all-round enlargement of relations with the socialist states has not only added a meaningful flexibility to the conduct of Pakistan's foreign relations but has also reduced its dependence on traditional sources. It has ensured a regular inflow of selective aid for key projects.

The Muslim World : One of the ideological principles of Pakistan's foreign policy, since its very birth, is the fostering of closer bonds with the Muslim world and sharing its common aspirations. The country's dedication to this ideal has been steadfast despite occasional reappraisals of foreign policy. Reiterating this stand, President Ayub declared some months ago, "The Muslims occupy the landmass which is the heart of Afro-Asia, from Casablanca to the Pacific. Our problems, hazards and troubles are the same. Unless we get together and solve these problems we will not be able to play an important role which this area has played in the past in world affairs".

Iran and Turkey: Pakistan's adhesion to the goal of Muslim brotherhood has found a practical manifestation in the establishment of the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) which has linked Pakistan in a new and dynamic partnership with Iran and Turkey. In a short span of four years, this association has taken big strides towards regional cohesion. The first year was devoted to identifying the spheres of tripartite co-operation and laying the groundwork for it. Particular attention was focussed on deve-

loping intra-regional means of communication, reducing postal and telegraph rates, co-ordinating banking and insurance operations, establishing joint chambers of trade and commerce, drawing up plans for joint industrial ventures, promoting cultural ties and tourism and fostering technical co-operation. RCD has already achieved tangible results in these fields.

The RCD Secretariat and its various organs are now functioning smoothly. Seven committees have been set up to co-ordinate activities. The RCD Chamber of Commerce and Industry which will cover a market of 170 million people has got into stride. In the industrial field, out of 33 joint projects 17 are receiving final touches and quite a few are under execution, notably the aluminium project in Iran, the bank note and jute mill projects in Pakistan. Before long, work will start on large and complex industries which cannot be set up except by pooling resources. These relate to petro-chemicals, electrical and mechanical complexes, oil drilling and refining, iron and steel manufacturing, textile machinery and diesel engines and similar industries. After the signing of the Payments Union Agreement, and the establishment of a joint shipping service, new

The Shahinshah of Iran and Queen Farah Pahlavi with President Ayub at the President's Guest House in March 1967.



vistas of trade expansion have opened. The implementation of rail and road projects, especially the Turkey-Iran rail link and the RCD Highway linking Ankara, Tehran and Karachi which is expected to be completed by the end of this year, will dismantle artificial barriers. The technical co-operation programme is also in full swing; during 1968 training facilities are being provided to all member states.

There are plans now to set up a joint RCD re-insurance company — an RCD Insurance Centre has already started functioning — an industrial design centre and a common market. Trade between Pakistan and its RCD partners has been steadily expanding in recent years. Latest figures indicate that exports from Pakistan to Turkey have increased from Rs. 191,000 in 1961-62 to Rs. 30,140,000 in 1966-67. During this period imports from Turkey have gone up from Rs. 158,000 to Rs. 10,229,000. Exports from Pakistan to Iran have risen from Rs. 8.3 million in 1961-62 to Rs. 17 million in 1966-67 while imports have gone up from Rs. 115 million to Rs. 124 million.

In keeping with popular expectations, RCD leaders have begun to widen the scope of their collaboration. The economic concept of co-operation is now developing into a political kinship of like-minded nations as should be evident from the common approach of Pakistan, Iran and Turkey to the Middle East crisis at the Ramsar summit of August 1967. The joint call for the withdrawal of Israeli forces from the occupied Arab lands and the relinquishing of Zionist control on Jerusalem, made a deep impact on the Arab capitals and apparently paved the way for Turco-Arab amity on the one hand and Iran's diplomatic rapprochement with UAR, on the other. Thus, the RCD concept is directed towards larger unity among the Muslim countries of the world.

Arab States: In keeping with the moral components of its nationhood, Pakistan has at the United Nations and other world gatherings always lent strong support to every just cause of the Arab states. One may recall that it fought hard at the United Nations against the creation of Israel. Pakistan threw its full weight on the side of Libya's freedom, took up the cudgels on behalf of Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria and, in the process, incurred the displeasure of mighty powers. More recently, it sponsored the most crucial resolutions on the status of Jerusalem in the UN General Assembly and the Security Council.

The resolution of July 14, 1967, asking Israel to annul all measures taken to annex the Holy City was the only positive outcome of the long drawn-out General Assembly debate on the Middle East. In April 1968, Pakistan sponsored another resolution in the Security Council calling upon Tel Aviv not to alter the *status quo* of Jerusalem and it was unanimously adopted.

This country's unstinted support to the Arabs, particularly to UAR, Jordan and Syria which bore the brunt of Israeli aggression in June 1967, has been reciprocated by them. The institution of the President's Arab War Relief Fund was gratefully welcomed by all Arab capitals. The press and National Assembly of UAR — with whom Pak-



Prime Minister Demirel and Madame Demirel of Turkey arrive at Shalimar Gardens to attend a civic reception on April 29, 1967.

istan's relations were at times under stress — hailed Pakistan as the first among the friends of the Arabs. President Nasser, President Abdel Rahman Aref of Iraq and Jordan's King Hussain publicly acknowledged Pakistan's outstanding role and support in their struggle against Zionism. King Hussein's visit to Pakistan in September 1967 and again in February 1968 forged closer relations with Amman, which has always supported the right of the people of Kashmir to self-determination. Last year, President Nasser's special envoy, Dr. Mahmoud Fawzi, also called on the Pakistan President and urged closer Pakistan-UAR ties. The two countries have been working together for Afro-Asian solidarity, for the promotion of an equitable pattern of economic relations between the rich and poor nations and for curbing the spread of nuclear weapons. They can certainly widen the existing area of agreement for mutual benefit.

Pakistan's economic ties with two Arab states have, in recent years, grown rapidly; these are Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. In March 1968, it was decided that Pakistan should set up a commercial bank at Jeddah to finance trade and industry on a regional basis.

Earlier, an agreement had been signed for the exploration of oil in the Red Sea area. In April 1968, the Saudi Arabian Minister for Petroleum and Minerals, Dr. Ahmad Zaki Yamani, brought important proposals to Pakistan including those for setting up a steel mill, an oil refinery, a textile factory, a shipping company and a petro-chemical industry, on a joint venture basis. To pool financial and technical resources, a joint investment company is proposed to be established. Pakistan's President had suggested some time ago that an organization on the pattern of RCD be set up to promote co-operation.

Oil-rich Kuwait has also expressed the desire to embark on joint ventures with Pakistan. The trade between the two countries is already flourishing; in 1966-67 Pakistan's exports rose to Rs. 53 million and imports Rs. 20 million, leaving a sizable balance of trade. To improve trade ties, a direct radio-telephone link was established in November 1967. It is now proposed to set up a joint shipping line, petro-chemical industries and oil refineries to reinforce economic collaboration.

Over the years, Pakistan has steadily strengthened economic relations with the Arabs. During 1967-68 trade dele-

President Ayub receiving King Hussein of Jordan at the President's Guest House.



gations have been sent to UAR, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Kuwait and the Gulf States, so as to fill the commercial vacuum created by the closure of the Suez Canal. The two-way traffic of goods has lately risen to nearly Rs. 600 million.

With a view to fostering solidarity with the Arabs, a delegation led by the Pakistan Foreign Minister was sent to Iraq, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria and UAR in August 1967. It assessed the situation at first hand, offered to meet the urgent needs of the Arabs and reaffirmed that the struggle of the Arabs against the Zionists was the struggle of all emergent states and could be won through solidarity. This helped to impart a new depth to Pakistan-Arab bonds of brotherhood.

Indonesia: Among the Muslim states, Indonesia figures prominently on the list of Pakistan's close friends. The two countries being the co-sponsors of the first Bandung Conference, are linked together in the quest for Afro-Asian solidarity and are also bound by fraternity of faith. Since 1964, with the signing of the Indonesia-Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation agreement (IPECC), on the model of RCD, mutual relations have entered a new and more positive phase. The spirit of comradeship found eloquent expression when Djakarta gave unequivocal support to Pakistan in its resistance against Indian aggression in September 1965.

Until recently, the objectives of the IPECC could not be vigorously pursued owing to unforeseen developments and an economic crisis in Indonesia. A fresh start was, however, made in early 1968 at the Ministerial Council meeting. It approved, in principle, joint ventures in jute manufacturing, rubber processing, shipbuilding and fisheries, to name only a few projects. To strengthen the existing bonds of cultural kinship, it was decided to set up cultural centres covering a wide range of activities. In the sphere of trade promotion, it was agreed that Pakistan should open a commercial bank in Indonesia and evolve new procedures to maximize trade. Currently, Pakistan is also providing credit to Indonesia for the import of goods from Pakistan. It has so far extended 15 million dollars for this purpose.

The resolve of the two largest states in the Muslim world to wage a common struggle for the economic emancipation of their 250 million people has set a new example of regional cohesion in South-east Asia. It can help to rectify economic, social and political imbalances in this strategic area. Despite the change of regime, Djakarta has reaffirmed its support to the struggle of the Kashmiris to realize their destiny, which is wholly in keeping with the resurgent spirit of this Muslim republic and its desire to strengthen the forces of peace and stability in Asia and evolve a new and rational order.

Neighbouring Countries: One of the prime factors in the evolution of its foreign policy is Pakistan's desire to live in peace and amity with neighbours. It does not wish to indulge in power politics. It wants to live with big and small neighbours on the basis of mutual respect and reciprocity.

India: In consonance with these principles, Pakistan's President has

repeatedly appealed to India — for example in his first-of-the-month broadcasts in July-August, 1967 — to normalize relations and "lay firm foundations of peace in this area".

The chief cause of tension has been India's stiffening posture on Jammu and Kashmir. Under the September 20 (1965) Resolution of the Security Council and the Tashkent accord, it was obligatory on New Delhi to initiate meaningful talks to decide Kashmir's future. But after the ministerial talks in Rawalpindi in March 1966, the Indian Prime Minister, Mrs. Indira Gandhi, declared that there was nothing to negotiate with Pakistan on Kashmir. Mrs. Gandhi made a public statement to this effect on May 10, 1967.

Meanwhile, the worsening situation in Occupied Kashmir and other internal and external pressures forced the Indian Government to release Sheikh Abdullah early in 1968. But this has not been followed by any move for settlement, in spite of the fact that in December 1967 President Ayub had gone so far as to express willingness to have impartial mediation or arbitration if that could help to resolve the dispute. Within a few months of the Sheikh's release, Srinagar and New Delhi again began to threaten him with detention. The Kashmiri leader has, however, refused to change his stand. In May 1968, he openly accused India of pursuing a creed of "neo-imperialism and becoming a colonizer in Kashmir." He also warned that the new generation of Kashmiris may be forced to launch an Algerian-type resistance movement in the Valley.

This apparently reflects the growing desperation of Indian-occupied Kashmir at the latest steps taken by the Indian Government to obliterate its distinct entity. Not satisfied with extending 150 Central Acts to the occupied territory — as admitted by the Indian Minister of State for Home Affairs in the Rajya Sabha some time ago — New Delhi has lately been planning to merge Jammu and Himachal Pradesh. Thus, there is a new ferment in Kashmir and a new Liberation Front is reported to have been formed. In quest of a peaceful settlement of the festering problem, Pakistan's new Foreign Minister, Mr. Arshad Husain, has once again affirmed in the National Assembly Pakistan's willingness to sit across the conference table with India and make an effort to solve this issue in the light of the United Nations' resolutions.

In spite of its verbal claims of adhering to the principle of pacific settlement of international disputes, New Delhi continues to claim that Kashmir is an integral part of India and persists in its massive arms build-up. It failed to respond to the voluntary reduction of 24 per cent effected by Pakistan in its 1967-68 defence Budget. On the contrary, the Indian Government has created new military imbalance in the Sub-continent by apportioning Rs. 11,050 million for defence in its 1968-69 Budget, a fourfold increase over the 1960-61 figure. In view of India's attitude towards non-proliferation of nuclear arms, fresh perils have begun to confront this region.

India's hostile attitude towards Pakistan also finds expression in its treatment of its Muslim minority. In recent

months, the wave of anti-Muslim riots has continued to mount. Since the Liaquat-Nehru Pact of 1950 there have been over 1,000 anti-Muslim riots in India, while Pakistan has had almost no riot after Independence. In 1967 alone Pakistan had to send 37 protest Notes to New Delhi against Muslim-baiting; another 11 Notes were sent by April this year. The more moderate sections in India have begun to see the dangers attendant upon unbridled communalism and now complain about official indifference, even involvement, in recurrent disturbances.

New Delhi's failure to honour commitments and bilateral agreements — as in the case of the restoration of Berubari to Pakistan — has caused further bitterness between the two countries. (Incidentally, this explains why the Arbitration Tribunal on the Rann of Kutch, which gave its verdict last February vindicating Pakistan's basic stand that Kutch is not an integral part of India, will remain in being until its findings have been implemented in full.) The latest example of India's attitude is its stand on the Farraka barrage. It seems anxious, without signing any agreement with Pakistan, to complete the barrage at Farraka ahead of schedule which will adversely affect seven districts in East Pakistan and ruin over four million acres of land. Rawalpindi has given notice that, if India insists on unilateral manipulation of Ganges waters, Pakistan will be left with no alternative but to take the matter to the UN to secure its rights as a lower riparian, and protect its economy against new Indian threats.

Afghanistan, Nepal and Burma: In sharp contrast to India's hostility, there is goodwill and amity between Pakistan and other neighbours. King Zahir Shah's visit to this country last year was symbolic of the growing understanding between Kabul and Rawalpindi. Steps have been taken in the recent past to enhance Pak-Afghanistan trade which has trebled since 1962. Pakistan's exports stood at Rs. 53 million and imports at Rs. 98 million in 1966-67. Several proposals are now being considered to launch joint industrial ventures. The opening of the ancient "Silk Route" between Pakistan and the Soviet Union through Afghanistan, the starting of a bus service between Peshawar and Kabul, the signing of an air pact and the plans for constructing new rail links are bound to foster more positive collaboration between the two neighbours in economic as well as cultural fields.

Pakistan's co-operation with Nepal, a Hindu state, has been perceptibly stepped up over the years. In 1967, the King and Queen of Nepal paid an informal visit to Pakistan. Nepal's relations with this country have been marked by extreme cordiality and mutual understanding. Pakistan has been extending technical help to Nepal in training its engineers and pilots and offering cultural scholarships to Nepalese students. More recently it has carried out a survey on the feasibility of tube-well irrigation in Nepal.

Another neighbour with which Pakistan's relations have lately been consolidated is Burma. The signing of the Pakistan-Burma boundary agreement in 1966 helped to culminate a process that was initiated in 1960 when Pakistan's President visited Burma. More recently, cultural and commer-

cial relations have been expanded. During 1966-67, Pakistan exported to Burma goods worth Rs. 63 million; its imports were valued at Rs. 53 million. A new trade pact was signed last year. In the cultural sphere Pakistan has been offering training facilities to Burmese personnel and students.

Pakistan's trade with Ceylon has been rapidly expanding, despite competition from India and Japan. In respect of exports to Ceylon Pakistan enjoys the fourth place — after Britain, India and Australia; from Rs. 28 million in 1963-64 these exports have risen to Rs. 58 million in 1966-67. In 1967, trade delegations were exchanged to promote a bigger trade turn-over. Being partners in the Colombo Plan and in the Commonwealth, ties between Pakistan and Ceylon are likely to grow further in the coming years.

Far East and S.E. Asia: Australia has actively participated in the implementation of several development projects in this country. Though Australia is not a member of the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium, it has pledged 3.3 million dollars during the first three years of the current Plan. The volume of trade between the two countries is steadily growing. Between 1963-64 and 1966-67, Pakistan's exports have risen from Rs. 74 million to Rs. 94 million and imports from Rs. 53 million to Rs. 291 million.

Yet another Asian country with which Pakistan has substantial trade is Japan. In 1966-67, exports to it went up to Rs. 119 million as against imports from Japan worth Rs. 152 million. As a member of the Consortium, Japan has extended economic assistance amounting to 90 million dollars during the Third Plan. Most significant is its assistance in setting up Pakistan's first steel mill at Chittagong, which went into production in August 1967. This 330-million-rupee project has an initial capacity of 150,000 tons which is being raised to 250,000 tons. By helping Pakistan to make a long-cherished breakthrough in steel manufacturing—the symbol of national power — Japan has scored over other nations who are also helping this country develop resources.

Latin America: Pakistan has been striving to develop co-operation with countries in this region. It has resident missions in Brazil and Argentina; Pakistan's Ambassador in Argentina is also accredited to Chile and Uruguay; its Ambassador in USA is concurrently accredited to Mexico and Venezuela; its High Commissioner in Canada is accredited as Ambassador to Cuba and as High Commissioner to Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago; and it also has an Honorary Consul in Panama.

In February 1968, a trade mission was sent to Brazil soon after the signing of a cultural agreement. In Argentina, a cultural institute was established some time ago to make Pakistan better known there. Pakistan's Food Minister paid an official visit to Mexico in 1967 and concluded a fresh agreement for the purchase of wheat seed. Pakistan is exporting goods worth Rs. 23 million to Cuba, Rs. 18 million to Argentina, Rs. 13 million to Chile and Rs. 9 million to Peru, to name its chief trading partners in Latin America.

Pakistan has common problems with the Latin Americans in respect of the

mechanics of foreign aid, raising of living standards, curbing of nuclear proliferation and the enforcement of the rule of law in international affairs. Both at UN and UNCTAD conferences and in other world forums, Pakistan has thrown its weight on the side of just causes and aspirations of Latin Americans.

Africa: To the African struggles for Independence, Pakistan has invariably lent staunch support. This explains why, after the emergence of the Maghreb states — Libya, Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco — and other African states into independence, a number of friendly agreements were signed with them for promoting closer economic and cultural relations. Not long ago, an air agreement was signed between Pakistan International Airlines and East African Airways, owned jointly by Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. Several trade pacts have been concluded with a view to reviving ancient trade ties. In the past few years trade delegations from East Africa have visited Pakistan. Early in 1968, a trade delegation from Pakistan went to East Africa and concluded on-the-spot deals for the export of Pakistani goods. In 1966-67 Pakistan exported goods worth Rs. 314 million to Africa, while its imports stood at Rs. 29 million, leaving a sizeable trade balance of Rs. 285 million. Pakistan has also extended technical assistance to several African states, notably Zambia and Tanzania. There are plans now to embark upon joint industrial ventures. Hundreds of African students are currently receiving training in this country in agricultural, industrial, scientific and technological fields. Cadets from Nigeria and Ghana have been receiving military training in Pakistani military academies for some years.

In June 1967, the President of Zambia, Dr. Kenneth Kuanda, paid an official visit to Pakistan. He had talks with President Ayub on world trade, disarmament, nuclear non-proliferation and the latest situation in Kashmir, in Rhodesia, and in South-west Africa. On the question of Rhodesia the two Presidents agreed that measures against the illegal Smith regime in Salisbury must be made effective. In March 1968, the Nigerian Foreign Minister, Dr. Okoi Arikpo, visited Pakistan. In the joint communique issued on this occasion Pakistan called for the enforcement of mandatory sanctions against the Smith regime, condemned Pretoria's apartheid and the annexation of South-west Africa.

International Issues: Pakistan has consistently opposed racialism and colonialism in all forms. It demonstrated its solidarity with the Africans by co-sponsoring the General Assembly resolution of 1962 and supporting subsequent resolutions against apartheid and by severing diplomatic, consular and trade relations with South Africa. At the United Nations, Pakistan has been in the forefront of the struggle against Pretoria's hold on South-west Africa; it was nominated to serve on the Fourteen-Member Committee established to recommend practical means to enable the people of South-west Africa to exercise their right of self-determination. In January 1968, Pakistan's initiative in mobilizing the world body in defence of the 33 detained nationalists of South-west Africa underscored its resolve to continue the fight against apartheid.

In the Security Council debate on the Rhodesian issue, Pakistan has been making a forceful plea for the use of force to bring down the Smith regime. In April 1968, Pakistan told the Security Council that the failure of selective mandatory sanctions and Salisbury's disregard of the UN resolution on the execution of African prisoners pose a direct challenge to the world body and its future.

Pakistan also played a key role at UN in sponsoring the conference of non-nuclear states, scheduled to meet in August 1968 to consider the questions of the security of non-nuclear states, co-operation among them to control the spread of nuclear arms and securing guarantees that nuclear devices will be used only for peaceful purposes. In June 1968, Pakistan cast an affirmative vote in favour of the resolution on the non-proliferation treaty in the General Assembly with certain reservations and made it clear that it is not committed to sign the treaty. Pakistan's representative explained, the treaty does not spell out specific nuclear disarmament measures by the nuclear powers who will be free to carry on underground explosions; since it does not associate China and France it will not be universal. Moreover, it ignores the question of security guarantees to non-nuclear states. Later on, when these guarantees were offered in the Security Council by America, Russia and Britain, Pakistan's stand was that one-sided guarantees are likely to increase nuclear tensions and that in order to inspire greater confidence among the non-nuclear states, the treaty should take note of the recommendations of the forthcoming deliberations and recommendations of non-nuclear nations.

Pakistan's just stand on major world issues, its advocacy of the Afro-Asian viewpoint and its indefatigable efforts to promote world peace and concord—all this paved the way for its election to the Security Council in November 1967 by a virtually unanimous vote. This is a recognition of the country's growing role in international affairs.

Development Planning

STARTING from an extremely narrow economic base in 1947, Pakistan has made rapid economic progress, especially during the last decade. The average annual growth rate of the gross national product jumped from little over 2 per cent between 1948-49 and 1959-60 to an annual average of 5.5 per cent from 1959-60 to 1964-65. The growth rate rose to the peak figure of 8.3 per cent in 1967-68, the third year of the Third Plan. The concomitant structural changes in the economy — that is, the volume, speed, and nature of industrialization, the technical and institutional breakthrough in agriculture, the progressive growth of the infrastructure, financial institutions and administrative capabilities — have created conditions in which the "take-off" point is likely to be reached within measurable time. This achievement has been mainly due to relentless effort in development planning.

The present stage of planning has been reached through a process of evolution which was basically conditioned by the initial problems faced in 1947. The whole process may be divided into three phases, the Six-Year Plan period from 1949-50 to 1954-55, the Five-Year Plan periods from 1955-56 to 1964-65, and starting from 1965-66, the perspective planning period.

Economically, East and West Pakistan were the most underdeveloped regions in the Sub-continent at the time of Independence. In addition, the resource endowments of the two provinces were different. East Pakistan specialized in the production of two major crops, rice and jute. West Pakistan specialized mainly in wheat and cotton. As there were no processing facilities in these regions: raw jute and cotton were sent to the rest of undivided India partly for manufacturing and partly for export

overseas. The areas now forming Pakistan depended almost entirely on the Indian part of the Sub-continent for nearly all their requirements of manufactured and semi-manufactured products.

Besides, the newly-established state had to face vast social, political, and administrative problems as immediate consequences of partition. Pakistan had also to face and control disruption in almost every one of its socio-economic institutions. Millions of immigrants had to be resettled. The local, as well as central, administration had to be re-established and set in motion.

Six-Year Plan: After the initial administrative difficulties had been largely surmounted and economic conditions began to improve, a bold and clear policy for industrial development was quickly announced. A Development Board, a Planning Advisory Board, and an Economic Committee of the Cabinet were set up as early as 1948. The first effort at planning was made in 1950, when, on the basis of the recommendations of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee, a Six-Year Development Plan (1951-57) was formulated.

The Six-Year Plan envisaged a total expenditure of Rs. 2,600 million, of which Rs. 1,200 million were to be financed externally and Rs. 1,400 million from internal resources. A Two-year Priority Programme was drawn up in 1951 within the framework of the Six-Year Plan. The Plan was flexible in many ways and was modified and expanded in later years. Against the original estimate of the total public sector expenditure of Rs. 2,600 million in six years, more than Rs. 3,000 million were spent during the first five years of the programme.

The preparation of the Six-Year Plan suffered from a lack of adequate information and basic statistics regarding resource availabilities and inter-relations between different sectors of the economy. Therefore, it mainly cocentrated on certain important schemes for the development of the infrastructure, the need for which was quite obvious.

The implementation of the Six-Year Plan and subsequent development efforts were also conditioned by certain crucial economic events, namely, the deadlock of Indo-Pakistan trade in 1949 and the Korean crisis in 1951. Following the devaluation of the Indian rupee in September 1949, there occurred a complete deadlock in Pakistan's trade with India, which ruptured the pre-Independence pattern of trade. Up to 1949, about 80 per cent of Pakistan's external trade was with India. It fell to zero between September 1949 and April 1950, and never rose to more than 7 per cent even after its subsequent resumption. The consequences were far-reaching for Pakistan. It was absolutely necessary to find alternative markets for its products to avoid further economic disruption and assure a sound base for progress.

The adjustment effort took the forms of (a) diversification of external trade and (b) substitution of the processing functions previously performed by India. The latter was already implicit in the policy of industrial development adopted in 1948; in 1949-50, the former

became a precondition for the latter. To facilitate quick diversification of trade, the Government had to make direct administrative efforts and to follow a trade policy appropriate to the situation. Thus, an open general licence (OGL) policy was introduced to facilitate the growth of a new class of traders unhindered by rigorous administrative controls as well as to avoid overburdening the administration in the implementation of such controls. The OGL did serve its purpose; but Pakistan's effort at this critical stage was largely facilitated by the Korean conflict. As a result of the Korean boom, there occurred a sudden upsurge in the demand for raw materials. Pakistan not only diversified her external trade successfully, she also earned a substantial amount of foreign exchange.

But the depression that followed in late 1951 created a new adjustment problem. The rapid depletion of foreign exchange reserves forced Pakistan to adopt a rigorous policy of import control from the middle of 1952. The new import policy virtually banned all imports of consumption goods, excepting the most essential, but it made liberal provision for the import of capital goods for the purpose of industrial development. This had a very favourable effect on the process of industrialization in the country. With rigorous control on imports, the prices of consumer goods in the domestic market went up. The prospect for higher margins of profit in a sheltered market turned some of the traders into industrial investors. They had the requisite funds accumulated from the Korean boom. The most important immediate advance was made in the cotton textile industry, because apart from the availability of raw materials, the technique was simple and known, and the domestic market was large and growing. This early development occurred mainly in West Pakistan. In order to stimulate industrial growth in both provinces in as wide a field as possible, the Government quickly established the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation in 1950, whose purpose was to develop industries in East and West Pakistan either alone or in partnership with private enterprise.

Industrial development between 1951 and 1957 moved at a spectacular rate, manufacturing output nearly quadrupling in six years; but progress in agriculture and related fields was less satisfactory, and the production of foodgrains actually decreased. While it is true that the Six-Year Plan had serious short-comings, its importance should not be underestimated. It facilitated the preparation and implementation of important projects for the development of transport, communications, water and power, and technical education. This plan will remain important in the economic history of Pakistan not only as a precursor of more comprehensive national planning, but also as a valuable educational experiment in this vast and complicated field.

Industrial development through private effort occurred mainly in West Pakistan for certain important reasons. First, West Pakistan had a better infrastructure than East Pakistan. Secondly, the development occurred largely in cotton textiles and West Pakistan is the producer of raw cotton. Thirdly, almost all the potential entrepreneurs

were in West Pakistan, since migrant business people from India came mostly to West Pakistan, and it was they who took the initiative in industrial development.

The initial lead in the development of industry, together with the heavy capital expenditure on defence, induced a progressive increase in expenditure on the infrastructure by the public sector in West Pakistan. This trend of development influenced the pattern, size, composition, and implementation of both the First and Second Five-Year Year Plans.

First Five-Year Plan: While implementing the Six-Year Plan an increasing need was felt for the formulation of a co-ordinated and integrated development plan based on a better estimate of resources and a systematic order of priorities for the inter-sectoral distribution of investment. Consequently, the Government appointed the Economic Appraisal Committee to review the country's economic situation. The Committee's report represented Pakistan's first attempt at an orderly analysis of economic problems on the basis of available data. It also made important data available to non-official users. This report was followed by the creation of the Planning Board, in July 1953, charged with the preparation of a development plan for the five year period 1955-60.

Early in 1955, the Planning Board published the draft of the First Five-Year Plan to elicit public opinion. Special conventions of professional economists of the country were organized by the Planning Board in East and West Pakistan, where the Draft Plan was examined and discussed in great detail. This was followed by the appointment of a panel of economists who further reviewed the Draft Plan. The final version of the Plan was then prepared in the light of these reviews and discussions.

The Plan made an over-all analysis of the economic problems of less developed countries in general, and a penetrating study of the basic socio-economic problems of Pakistan in particular. Indeed, the first part of the Plan can be regarded as a standard analysis of the problems of economic development. For the first time, the resource potentials of the country were systematically examined and estimated on the basis of data available to the Board. Starting from desired rates of growth in different sectors, the quantum of investment required was estimated, inter-sectoral priorities set, and consistency tested.

The Plan also laid down the basic objectives of Pakistan regarding the nature of the future economic system. While it clearly expounded the necessity for public investment to initiate planned, long-term economic growth in less developed countries, the Plan emphasized the crucial role to be played by the private sector and the necessity for fostering a healthy growth of private enterprise without jeopardizing the basic need for economic and social justice. As pre-conditions for working out such an objective, the Plan made an extensive study of institutional and administrative problems and made pertinent recommendations for land reform and other administrative and legislative changes.

The basic growth objectives of the Plan were:

(i) to increase the GNP by 15 per cent and per capita income by 7 per cent;
(ii) to increase industrial production by 9 per cent and cash crop production from 13 to 15 per cent.
(iii) to increase industrial production by about 60 per cent;
(iv) to create 2 million new jobs.

Plan Size: The draft of the First Five-Year Plan formulated a gross programme of Rs. 10,236 million for the public sector. Out of this Rs. 3,002 million were allocated to East Pakistan, Rs. 3,503 million to West Pakistan and Rs. 2,731 million for the Central Government programme. The Plan also made a block provision of Rs. 1,000 million to accommodate possible new schemes of the Government of East Pakistan.

The First Plan was not formally approved by the Government till 1957. In the process, revision of the Plan size became necessary. The revised Plan, published in December 1957, made a total allocation of Rs. 10,800 million of which Rs. 7,500 million were to be spent in the public sector and Rs. 3,300 million in the private sector. Of the total allocation, Rs. 6,600 million were to be financed from domestic sources and Rs. 4,200 million from external sources.

Allocations: On the basis of a pre-assigned order of priorities, an inter-sectoral distribution of public investment was made. As can be seen from Table I, the Plan proposed expenditure to the extent of 9.5 per cent on agriculture; 21.3 per cent on water and power; 26.7 per cent on industry, fuel, and minerals; 16.7 per cent on transport and communications; 13 per cent on physical planning and housing; and 4.6 per cent on education.

In view of the initial economic conditions in the country, especially the poor infrastructure, the First Plan rightly assigned relatively high priority to the development of the physical infrastructure, including water and power, transport and communications. However, the importance of a simultaneous increase in agricultural and industrial output was not minimized. In view of the initial growth of the industrial sector in Pakistan, the First Plan adopted a policy of supporting and accelerating the process which had already started. Consequently, 26.7 per cent of the total public sector investment was allocated to industry. Although the direct allocation to agriculture was 9.5 per cent, the actual allocation to this sector was higher, since a major proportion of investment on the development of water and power was really related to agriculture. The major proportion of investment in the education sector was earmarked for the development of technical education, which was directly related to the creation of technical manpower for the implementation of development programmes.

Performance: Over 70 per cent of public sector financial objectives of the Plan were achieved. The Plan targets for the private sector were surpassed. In West Pakistan, the public sector targets were more than fulfilled; in East Pakistan, only about 37 per cent of the targets were realized.

The actual increase in the GNP was about 11 per cent against the Plan target of 15 per cent. As population increased by about 12 per cent in the Plan period, the per capita income recorded a slight decline.

The Plan target was exceeded in the industrial sector, but more important was the fact that the achievement in this sector was made with significantly less investment than had been anticipated. The composition of indus trial output changed and, due to the efforts of the PIDC, a shift towards the production of heavier goods took place. Besides jute, paper, woollen textiles and sugar industries, considerable investment was made in cement, chemicals, and shipyards. Plan targets in power, transport, and physical sectors were more or less fulfilled. The most disappointing results occurred in the key sector of agriculture. Consequently, the country had to spend about Rs. 700 million on the import of food-grains against Rs. 410 million provided for in the Plan.

The shortfalls in the implementation of the First Plan were attributable to such factors as non-development expenditures exceeding expectations; foreign exchange earnings falling short of the plan targets; unfavourable terms of trade; and delay in receipt of foreign aid. In addition, the country faced unfavourable weather conditions during most of the Plan years. One of the most important reasons for inefficient implementation of the Plan was the incorrect or unsuitable orientation of Government agencies; development was not their traditional objective. A development oriented administrative machinery was not created till 1958-59; nor were the policies to encourage greater production of food-grains given effect.

The substantial shortfall in the implementation of the First Plan in East Pakistan was due to a similar group of factors, among which administrative inexperience, slow growth of infrastructure and a dearth of entrepreneurs in that region need to be specially mentioned.

Second Five-Year Plan: Despite shortfalls in the achievement of the Plan targets, the country gained invaluable experience during the First Plan period. Productive processes of crucial significance were set in motion, and development activities gained some momentum. Along with the Government's commitment to planned development, administrative machinery was geared to the demands of efficiency in implementing development projects. After 1958, a number of semi-autonomous bodies were created. These included the Water and Power Development Authorities, Agricultural Development Corporations, East Pakistan Inland Water Transport Authority, Forest Industries Development Corporations, and Road Transport Corporations. Land reform in West Pakistan was carried out, and a number of commissions on different socio-economic problems were set up. The Planning Board was raised to the status of a Planning Commission directly under the President. The material, technical and human basis for formulating and implementing the Second Plan (1960-65) was strengthened.

The major growth objectives of the Second Plan (as revised) were to in-

crease:

(a) GNP by 24 per cent;

(b) per capita income by 12 per cent;

(c) food-grain production by 21 per cent;

(d) industrial production by 60 per cent;

(e) foreign exchange earnings by 15 per cent.

Plan Size: The original size of the Second Plan was Rs. 19,000 million, of which Rs. 13,000 million was to be spent in the public and the semi-public sectors and Rs. 6,000 million in the private sector. Subsequently, the total size of the Plan was raised to Rs. 23,000 million — Rs. 14,620 million for the public and semi-public sectors and Rs. 8,380 million for the private sector. About Rs. 8,000 million were to be financed through external aid. Provision was also made for the investment of about Rs. 5,180 million, outside the Plan outlay, in the Indus Basin Replacement Projects and Works Programme. Of the total public sector outlay, Rs. 6,380 million were allocated for East Pakistan and Rs. 8,240 million for West Pakistan.

Strategy: The Plan strategy was governed by the crucial objective of increasing national income by 24 per cent during the Plan period and by the objective of creating new capacity for future growth. The strategy adopted was to maximize output through minimum inputs in the short run. Consequently, primary emphasis was placed on the quick completion of aided and ongoing projects which had reached an advanced stage of implementation, and on accelerating development in agriculture and small-scale industry where the capital-output ratios were relatively low. The quick growth of agricultural output was considered necessary for reducing pressure on the balance of payments and for widening the extent of the domestic market in order to facilitate unfettered growth in the industrial sector.

In spite of the emphasis on economizing capital per unit of output, about 50 per cent of the total public sector programme was devoted to the development of water and power, transport and communications, which were highly capital intensive with longer gestation periods. This was necessary not only for balancing the productive capacity, especially in East Pakistan, with the projected growth of output, but also for creating the capacity to speed up the growth of output in subsequent plan periods. Greater emphasis was placed on education and training, surveying and research.

In the realm of policy, because of the lesson learnt during the First Plan period, greater reliance was placed on the market mechanism. Instead of direct price controls, emphasis was placed on fiscal and monetary policies as parameters for influencing resource allocations.

Lastly, a built-in flexibility was introduced in the Plan strategy. Because of the awareness of uncertainties in respect of resource availabilities, weather conditions, the international situation, behaviour of growth fostering agents in the economy, technological changes and the like, provision for the alternation of Plan priorities were made so that adjustment to changing circumstances could be quick-

ly made in order to attain the broad objectives of the Plan. Accordingly, primary emphasis was placed on a more rigorous utilization of the annual development Budgets of the Central and provincial Governments as instruments for review of resources and programmes.

Allocations: As can be seen from Table I, about 15 per cent of the total Plan expenditure was allocated to agriculture, 19 per cent to water and power, 22 per cent to industry, 18 per cent to transport and communications, 15 per cent to physical planning and housing, and about 5 per cent to education.

An important feature of inter-sectoral allocations was that about 15 per cent of the total public sector expenditure was directly allocated to agriculture. Since the major part of expenditure on water development was directly connected with agriculture, the highest priority was, in fact, assigned to this sector.

Achievements: In financial terms, 95 per cent of the public sector investment was implemented while the private sector over-fulfilled its Plan targets. Of the total expenditure in the public sector, about 51 per cent was financed from domestic resources and the remaining 49 per cent from external resources. The agricultural sector responded so well that food-grains production increased by about 27 per cent, against the Plan target of 21 per cent. Industrial production increased by over 61 per cent, and foreign exchange earnings increased at an annual rate of 7 per cent (against the Plan target of 3 per cent). GNP increased by over 30 per cent against the Plan target of 24 per cent.

Consequent upon the growth of GNP, notable structural changes occurred in the economy. The share of agriculture in GNP declined from 53.2 per cent in 1959-60 to 48.2 per cent in 1964-65, while the share of manufactures increased from 9.3 per cent to 11.5 per cent. More significant was the contribution of the construction sector which increased from 2.1 per cent in 1959-60 to 4.7 per cent in 1964-65. Also notable was the balancing of the relative growths of agriculture and industry. During the pre-Second Plan period, the growth of agricultural output did not exceed 1.3 per cent per annum, while industrial output grew at the rate of about 7.4 per cent per annum. In the Second Plan period, the respective growth rates for these sectors came to 3.4 per cent and 10 per cent per annum. The agricultural growth was mainly the result of institutional changes and of increased provision for water, fertilizer, seeds, pesticide and modern farming techniques.

The most significant achievement was the acceleration of economic growth in East Pakistan. East Pakistan was able to implement about 95 per cent of the programme in the public sector. The GNP originating in East Pakistan increased at the annual compound rate of about 5 per cent, while the corresponding rate in West Pakistan was 5.5 per cent. But for the sluggishness of the private sector, East Pakistan would have achieved a higher growth rate than West Pakistan. Considerable dynamism had been built into the economy of East Pakistan under the Second Plan which was manifest in the

faster growth of agriculture, industry, transport and construction sectors.

The implementation of the Second Plan also witnessed significant changes in economic policy. The economy was progressively freed from direct administrative controls and remaining controls effectively co-ordinated with market mechanisms. One of the reasons for success in the agricultural sector was the abandonment of rationing, establishment of support prices for wheat, subsidy on fertilizer (over 50 per cent) and a more liberal import of tube-wells in the private sector. There was a gradual relaxation of restrictive controls on imports, and the basis of the Export Bonus Scheme was considerably expanded. The list of items placed on automatic licences was progressively enlarged. Increased domestic output together with the liberalization of imports maintained high stability in domestic prices. Consequently, the wholesale price index increased by only 10 per cent in spite of a 47 per cent increase in money supply during the Second Plan period.

Perspective Plan: The formulation of the Second Plan was made against a perspective of the stage and the nature of economic growth to be achieved in the subsequent plan periods. But Pakistan's experience in planning was not yet ripe for a clear specification of certain attainable goals over the future plan periods. The Second Plan demonstrated the capacity of the country to attain growth rates higher than 5 per cent per annum, and the investment level had risen to 18.8 per cent of GNP. About 22 per cent of the incremental income during the Second Plan period was saved and reinvested, while the volume of export had risen at a rate of about 7 per cent per annum. There had been a breakthrough in the agricultural sector and a greater flow of foreign aid. The private sector matured in the realm of investment. Thus the experience gained in the implementation of the Second Plan provided the requisite background for formulating a tentative Perspective Plan for the period between 1965 and 1985, as a basis for the formulation of individual plans within the Perspective Plan period.

The Perspective Plan, as can be seen from Table II, was drawn up with the following broad objectives in view:

(a) four-fold increase in GNP by 1985 over the level of 1965, which would allow per capita income to be more than doubled;
(b) provision of full employment for the entire labour force;
(c) parity in per capita incomes between East and West Pakistan;
(d) universal literacy;
(e) elimination of dependence on foreign aid.

In order to attain these long-range goals, the Perspective Plan envisaged that GNP would increase at a compound rate of 7.2 per cent, gross investment at 8.5 per cent, gross domestic savings at 11.4 per cent, and exports at 7.9 per cent per annum over the period between 1965 and 1985.

Third 5-Year Plan: The Third Plan (1965-70) has been formulated as the first individual plan of the Twenty-Year Perspective Plan period. Technically, as a plan document, it is more comprehensive than the other plans for several reasons. Because of increased

availability of data, increased experience and skill, the Third Plan was formulated on the basis of an "input-output" model for Pakistan. In view of the constitutional obligation to remove economic disparity between East and West Pakistan and in view of the strengthening of the planning mechanism in East Pakistan, the Third Plan also explicitly incorporates the need and the measures for removing regional disparity in economic growth over a specified period.

The Third Plan aims at the following objectives:

(i) a minimum increase of 37 per cent in GNP;

(ii) a minimum increase of regionally originated GNP in East and West Pakistan by 40 per cent and 35 per cent, respectively;

(iii) creation of 5.5 million new jobs to absorb the entire increase in the labour force during the Plan period, as well as to reduce the existing level of unemployment by over one-sixth;

(iv) increase of export earnings by 9.5 per cent per annum;

(v) development of basic industries, so that the requirements of producer goods for further industrialization can be met mainly from the country's own capacity;

(vi) acceleration of the on-going transformation in agriculture by placing the highest priority on measures to increase per acre yields and by maintaining strong incentives through subsidies and the like;

(vii) control of population growth through decisive steps towards family planning;

(viii) provision of better housing, more health services, and greater facilities for education, especially for the lower income groups;

(ix) achievement of specific social objectives such as reduction of inequalities in the distribution of income, wealth, and economic power, and increased provision for social security.

Plan Size: The total size of the Plan is Rs. 52,000 million — Rs. 30,000 million in the public and semi-public sector and Rs. 22,000 million in the private sector. For the country as a whole, the Second Plan ratio between public and private sector development expenditures has been more or less maintained, but in order to reduce economic disparity through accelerating growth, the ratio of the public sector expenditure in East Pakistan has been raised. Of the total public sector allocation, Rs. 16,000 million were earmarked for East Pakistan, with Rs. 14,000 million left for West Pakistan, while the total allocation for the private sector has been equally divided between the two wings.

About 55 per cent of the public sector development programme is expected to be financed from domestic resources, and the remaining 45 per cent from foreign loans. A substantial part of the increased public savings is expected to come from larger budgetary surpluses at the existing tax rates and from net capital receipts.

The private sector's performance in respect of fixed capital formation had exceeded targets in the Second Plan. The adoption of liberal economic policies and other measures is expected to accelerate private investment in the Third Plan and, as can be seen from Table VII, most of the private investment is to be undertaken from domestic saving. As a result, the share of external

resources in the total expenditure of the Third Plan will be only 32 per cent.

Strategy: The Third Plan strategy was governed by the achievements of the Second Plan and by the objectives of the Perspective Plan. The target of a 6.5 per cent growth rate in GNP fits in with the projected growth rate in the Perspective Plan.

The pattern of growth in the Third Plan is mainly an extension of the Second. However, agriculture has been assigned a more dynamic role than before. During the Second Plan period the rate of growth was 3.4 per cent in agriculture, 8.6 per cent in industry, and 6.7 per cent in other sectors. The corresponding projected growth rates in the Third Plan are 5.0, 10.0, and 7.1 per cent, respectively.

Relatively greater emphasis is placed on the development of heavy industries and a certain part of the infrastructure which will raise the capital-output ratio during the Third Plan period. The increase in capital-output ratio will also be influenced by greater investment in the education and social welfare sectors since physical returns from such programmes are lower in the short run.

The Third Plan aims at maintaining the same marginal rate of saving as was achieved during the Second Plan period, which, at 22 per cent, will raise the average saving rate to 13.6 per cent by 1970. Considering the higher base from which the Third Plan has started, this is a reasonable target. The strategy for mobilizing domestic savings includes, as before, the distribution of the national product in favour of the saving sectors. This conforms to the strategy of accelerating the industrial growth rate, with special emphasis on heavy industries, since saving and reinvestment by large-scale industries was the highest (i.e., 75 per cent of profits) in the Second Plan period. However, with accelerated growth in the agricultural sector the saving base will be broadened, and the new savings are to be canalized into productive investment through further growth of financial institutions.

The intended high marginal rate of saving, amongst other things, has also governed the balance of payments strategy in the Third Plan. The Plan target for increasing exports by 9.5 per cent per annum, as compared with the 6.5 per cent growth rate in GNP, is crucial to (a) achieving the desired rate of marginal saving and (b) reducing the need for foreign assistance by the end of the Perspective Plan period.

The increase in exports is expected mainly in manufactured goods and in non-traditional items like rice and fish. This means that particular emphasis will have to be placed on the efficiency of the industrial sector, from which in creased output and increased exportable surpluses in manufactures are to be obtained. Also, new industries will have to be largely export-oriented and the import substitution effort will have to be intensified, particularly in capital goods and in intermediate products, like base metals, chemicals, petroleum products, and non-metallic minerals. Furthermore, in the process of resource utilization, emphasis will have to be given to reducing the foreign exchange component per unit of output.

Allocations: The pattern of inter-sectoral allocations of investment funds follows

from the Plan strategy discussed above. The high rates of growth of GNP, marginal saving, exports, and employment point to assigning the highest priority to the industrial sector. Thus, of the total allocation, as much as 22 per cent has been earmarked for industry, and nearly two-thirds of this for capital goods and intermediate products. As can be seen from Table III, in the order of priorities, emphasis continues to be placed on transport and communications (20 per cent), water and power (16.4 per cent), and agriculture (15.3 per cent). Education, as in the preceding Plans, continues to receive a relatively low priority (5.1 per cent). A special feature of the Third Plan has been the incorporation of the Rural Works Programme in the Plan itself. Accordingly, 3.4 per cent of the total investment funds has been earmarked for this programme.

The Third Plan, however, commenced in difficult circumstances. The Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium's pledging session was postponed and the Consortium aid remained virtually suspended for over a year. The Indo-Pakistan War of September 1965 was also a cause of interruption and dislocation. Just then, the US Government announced the suspension and, later discontinuation of military aid to Pakistan. This led to an enhancement of defence spending so as to make up for the shortfall. On top of it, bad weather (drought) for two years running led to bad crops, necessitating heavier food imports.

The paucity of resources for investment and enhanced demands on them for non-productive purposes led to a revision of the Plan strategy, which resulted in priorities and sectoral allocations being changed, though its over-all size and main targets remained unchanged.

In spite of the retarded launching of the Third Plan, it is estimated that about Rs. 12,260 million (85 per cent) have been spent against the revised public sector target of Rs. 14,420 million during the first three years of the Plan. The performance of the private sector has also been very satisfactory, as about Rs. 12,250 million (102 per cent) out of the revised Plan target of Rs. 12,000 million had been spent by 1967-68.

The guiding principle underlining the revised strategy was to improve the input-output ratio through: (a) rephasing or postponing capital-intensive projects; (b) giving agriculture a high priority, which is a field where relatively smaller investments can give high yields, and (c) preferring those industrial projects which would either increase export earnings or would save scarce foreign exchange through import substitution.

The results achieved during the third year of the Plan (1967-68) have proved the effectiveness of the new strategy and the changes in priorities and sectoral allocations. The GNP rose by 8.3 per cent during this year as compared to 4.5 and 5 per cent during the previous two years. The agricultural production index jumped 20 points. Food prices declined by 4 per cent. The over-all plan target of 6.5 per cent average annual growth rate is within sight.

The uncertainties that a developing country faces, particularly with regard

to availability of foreign assistance, make a five-year plan period too long for realistic planning. From 1968-69, a new instrument has been added by the planners to their armoury. It is the Annual Plan. It does not, of course, replace the five-year plan; the latter remains the basic frame-work. The Annual Plan offers an opportunity for better programming and more frequent reviews of the economic situation. This innovation is expected to give greater flexibility to the planning processes.

POLICY FRAMEWORK

THE AIMS of economic policy have been broadly laid down in the Consituation. Pakistan is to be a welfare state with a mixed enonomy[1], in which free enterprise is encouraged and social justice and equality of opportunity[2] are maintained. Another basic objective is the removal of economic disparity between the two provinces in particular and between various regions in general. The immediate objective of economic policy is to develop national resources as fast as possible in order to build up a self-sustaining, industrialized economy which may facilitate the evolution of a welfare state. The disparities are to be removed in the process of development.

While social justice is sought to be established through various welfare activities, institutions and laws, the economic policy allows complete freedom to private enterprise within the limitations of national interest and safeguards against exploitation. Private enterprise has been, in fact, assigned a major role in development. Apart from directing and controlling economic development, the State does not undertake economic activity except where it is necessary in the national interest or where private enterprise is deficient or hesitant. An important principle of policy is to let the economy operate without administrative controls as far as possible. To achieve price stability, smooth and efficient production and fair distribution, reliance is placed on the market mechanism and its responses to monetary and fiscal measures.

Development planning is conditioned by a belief in the viability and efficiency of a liberal economic system. The economic policy ensures the mobilization of national resources and their employment in the desired spheres according to an order of priorities. Secondly, with a view to accelerating development, great importance is attached to foreign aid and loans which are judiciously distributed between the public and private sectors.

With a pragmatic approach, sometimes described as partial planning, the

1 The constitution explicitly states that the freedom of enterprise shall not prevent (b) The regulation of trade, commerce or industry for free competition therein; or (c) the carrying on, by the Central or Provincial Government or Corporation controlled by any such Government, of any trade business, industry or service, to the exclusion, complete or partial, of other persons. (The Constitution, II Article 6, F.R. 8).

2 The Constitution clearly states: "The well-being of the people, irrespective of caste, creed or race, should be secured — (a) by raising the standard of living of the common man; (b) by preventing the undue concentration of wealth and means of production and distribution in the hands of a few, to the detriment of the interest of the common man; and (c) by ensuring equitable adjustment of rights between employers and employees and and between landlords and tenants. (The Constitution, II, Article 8, (PP 9).

economic policy aims at a mixed economy in which the public sector and private enterprise reinforce each other. The private sector has been excluded only from defence industries, air transport, railways and telecommunications, which were inherited in the public sector at the time of Independence. Production of atomic energy has also been set apart for the public sector.

Various policies — fiscal, monetary, commercial, industrial and agricultural — are formulated with reference to the general framework of the economic policy. Most of the administrative controls have been dismantled as part of the long-range policy of decontrol. The Government believes that a liberal economic system is highly conducive to accelerated capital formation and economic growth, but special features must be incorporated to attain other important objectives, such as removal of economic disparity and a fairer distribution of wealth and economic power. The chief instruments in this regard are the fiscal policies and the corporations sponsored or established by the Government for different purposes.

Agriculture: Reorganization and development of the agricultural sector naturally occupies an important place in the economic policy. Agriculture holds a dominant position in the national economy, as it accounts for almost half of the national income and employs about 69 per cent of the total labour force.

To ensure speedy development, two high-powered agricultural policy committees headed by the provincial Governors have been appointed. These committees have worked out detailed programmes to attain self-sufficiency in food by 1970. Two Agricultural Development Corporations carry out these programmes in co-ordination with other provincial departments concerned with agriculture.

A series of vital measures taken to improve the agricultural sector include:

(i) introduction of land reforms, abolition of jagirs, fixation of a ceiling on land holdings and the consolidation of uneconomical units;
(ii) sale of fertilizers to farmers on subsidized rates — 35 per cent of the cost price in West Pakistan and over 50 per cent in East Pakistan;
(iii) protection of crops against pests and diseases, entirely free in East Pakistan, and at only 25 per cent of the cost in West Pakistan;
(iv) mechanical land development operations and cultivation of land by tractors in West Pakistan at subsidized rates;
(v) minimum procurement prices of major crops fixed to provide incentives to the farmers;
(vi) abolition of custom duty on the import of agricultural machinery.

Government is also encouraging the large-scale cultivation of new high-yielding varieties of wheat, maize and rice since they are more responsive to the use of fertilizers and their yield is at least twice as much as that of the conventional varieties. For increasing land productivity, more use of fertilizers is being encouraged. Liberal credit facilities are being provided through the Agricultural Development Bank, and co-operatives are being encouraged to provide further credit

and services to agriculturists. Education in better cropping patterns, more storage facilities, better marketing conditions and price stabilization measures have also been evolved.

A master plan for combating waterlogging and salinity is also under implementation.

Industry: To promote industrial development, Government, from time to time, announces industrial investment schedules which serve as a flexible policy instrument and guide private investors. No sanction is required for setting up industries based on locally manufactured machinery. Where plant and equipment have to be imported, the power to sanction industries within the framework of the industrial schedule, is vested in the financing institutions, that is, the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation, the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan and the Small Industries Corporations. Cases involving foreign investment and direct foreign loans from abroad, however, require prior Government permission. Wherever adjustments have to be made in total capacity, foreign exchange ratio or quantum of imported raw materials or any other adjustments are required for projects given in the industrial schedule, Government permission has to be sought, through the Central and Co-ordination Investment Promotion Committee.

The latest Industrial Investment Schedule announced on June 7, 1968, involving a total investment of Rs. 10,880 million, has accorded priority to industries which are export-oriented or encourage the production of agricultural machinery or are based on indigenous raw materials.

The location of industries is dispersed so that the over-all benefits may be shared equitably by the people of all regions. Incentives have also been provided for setting up industrial enterprises in less developed areas. The country has been divided into three types of areas according to the stage of development they have attained. In some areas industries are eligible for a tax holiday of six years, in others four years, and in relatively developed areas, two years.

Government activity in the field of manufacturing industry is confined to industries which are technologically too complex or too capital intensive for the private sector or industries which are intended to serve as pioneer units in hitherto less industrialized regions, or such basic industries as are likely to become private monopolies. For the purpose of direct investment in industries by the Government, two Industrial Development Corporations have been set up in East and West Pakistan. Every effort is made by these corporations to attract private capital in industries; and where it is shy or is not forthcoming at the outset, industries are developed by the corporations and transferred to private management at the earliest opportunity.

The Government has set up two Small Industries Corporations at the provincial level, which have established several industrial estates in major and minor towns, besides providing service facilities, designs, sales and displays and development-*cum*-training facilities. A constant endeavour is made to protect the interest of small investors from unfair competition from the large industrial houses. In fact, small indus-

tries are being encouraged to assume the role of sub-contracting and specialization. Numerous measures, such as soft credits, greater banking facilities, the People's Credit Scheme of the National Bank of Pakistan, separate provision in the Industrial Investment Schedule, have been taken to promote small industries. The minimum lending limits of financing agencies have also been lowered.

Special measures have been taken to promote capital formation in East Pakistan. The whole of East Pakistan has been allowed longer tax holidays for new industries than West Pakistan. Import duties on machinery have been fixed at a lower rate. The definition of small-scale industry has been enlarged so as to suit the requirements of the province.

The Government pursues a taxation policy designed to stimulate private enterprise. Special concessions are given to industries engaged in exploration of oil, gas and other minerals. A company is entitled to a tax holiday for six years if it has to operate in less developed areas. It has the option to set off all expenditure on prospecting and exploration against future income accruing after commercial production, in which case all expenditure on machinery and equipment is treated as revenue expenditure.

To encourage the shipping industry, the rate of depreciation allowance has been raised from 25 to 40 per cent. Recognized shipyards have been exempted from sales tax.

Liberal credit facilities, both in local and foreign currencies, have been made available to the industrial sector through the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan, the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation and other financial institutions.

Foreign Investments: To attract foreign investors, the Government continues to offer liberal incentives and tax concessions. Equality of treatment between foreign and Pakistani investors is guaranteed, curreny profits can be remitted freely, and an industry may be established with or without the participation of Pakistani capital. Liberal tax holidays ranging from two to six years, income-tax exemptions for foreign technicians, and generous depreciation allowances are assured, and guarantees are given against the risk of nationalization.

Facilities for profit and capital remittances have been guaranteed to create a favourable climate for foreign private investment. Agreements for avoidance of double taxation and investment treaties have been concluded with a number of countries.

Fiscal and Monetary Policies: The basic objective of Pakistan's monetary policy is to foster development in a framework of monetary stability.

A close and continuous watch by the Government has ensured that money supply rises in consonance with the genuine requirements of the economy, keeping in view the process of monetization and changes in the habits and attitudes of individuals and institutions in regard to liquidity preferences. It discourages excessive monetary expansion which raises the price level, hampers savings, leads to misalloca-

tion of resources, and creates pressure on the balance of payments. In the monetary sphere, attention has been focussed on policies which help mobilize larger domestic resources, direct them into productive channels, hold the price line and contain non-development and unproductive spending.

Resources: Pakistan has pursued a policy of diversification of the sources of foreign aid to secure the best possible terms of credit. During the first three years of the Third Plan, Pakistan was able to secure fresh pledges of assistance amounting to 1,093 million dollars from the World Bank Consortium and about 286 million dollars from the socialist countries.

It is anticipated that 28 per cent of the additional per capita income must be saved during the Third Plan period. The saving effort is based on a clear recognition of the possibility that industrial profits may tend to decline with more domestic and international competition and initiation of a structural change in favour of more complex industries and a longer gestation period for capital goods industries. Liberalization of imports would however help more efficient use of industrial capacity. It is estimated that, with the incentive provided under the present system of taxation, as much as 60 to 75 per cent of the industrial profits will continue to be reinvested.

Finally, the institutional frame-work for mobilizing domestic savings through the capital market has been improved considerably and is expected to penetrate further in the rural and semi-urban areas where the bulk of the new income will be generated. The interest rate structure has also been revised to provide greater incentives for the higher rate of savings.

Commercial Policy: Pakistan's commercial policy aims at meeting essential consumer demands and at the same time promoting over-all economic growth. It is designed to stimulate industrial production and exports through liberal provisions for the supply of raw materials and spares, the satisfaction of consumer needs and an adequate supply of inputs of agricultural equipment to achieve self-sufficiency in food.

An important aspect of the commercial policy is the effort to diversify trade through agreements, including barter deals, with socialist countries and other non-traditional trade partners.

PLANNING ORGANIZATION

National Economic Council: This Council is the supreme decision-making body in respect of planning and development and its chairman is the President. The members include the two provincial Governors, almost all Central ministers, the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, and the provincial finance ministers. The National Economic Council (NEC) performs the following functions:

(i) review of the overall economic position of the country;
(ii) formulation of plans with respect to financial, commercial and economic policies and to the economic development of the country;
(iii) approval of the five-year plans, the annual development programmes, the Central and provincial public sector schemes, schemes in the private sector

and all non-plan schemes;
(iv) taking steps for the removal of economic disparity between the two provinces and between different areas within a province.

Executive Committee: The National Economic Council has an Executive Committee (ECNEC) headed by the Central Finance Minister. Broadly speaking, the functions of ECNEC are:

(a) to sanction development schemes both in the public and the private sector pending their approval by the National Economic Council;
(b) to sanction moderate changes in the plans and readjustments in inter-sectoral priorities within the over-all allocations;
(c) to supervise the implementation of economic policies laid down by the NEC and the Cabinet.

Planning Commission: This commission is the supreme technical authority for planning and development in Pakistan. It has the status of a division in the President's Secretariat, with the President himself as the Chairman of the Commission. The Deputy Chairman, who has the status of a Central minister without Cabinet rank, is the operational head of the Commission. In addition to the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman, the Planning Commission includes the Secretary in charge of the Planning Division and two members, one from each province.

Functions: The commission carries out the following important functions:

(a) preparation of national plans at periodic intervals;
(b) preparation of annual development programmes within the framework of the national plan and its priorities in respect of inter- and intra-sectoral allocations of resources;
(c) approval of development projects and watching and guiding their implementation;
(d) reporting on the progress of projects;
(e) measurement of performance against targets;
(f) identification of causes of delay in the implementation of projects;
(g) advice on the nature of the requisite machinery for efficient formulation and execution of the national plans;
(h) assessment from time to time of the human and material resources of the country;
(i) analysis of, and recommendation on, important economic policies and programmes.

The commission performs these functions with the help of a group of economic and technical sections. The economic sections deal with perspective planning, fiscal and monetary policies, international economics, economic research, and programming. These sections are headed by the Chief Economist. The technical sections mainly deal with specific sectors of the economy such as food and agriculture, water and power, industry, education, health and social welfare, and so on.

Provincial Departments: The Planning Commission is the main body for preparing development plans, programmes, and related economic policies, but the provincial planning and development departments also have responsibilities for the preparation and coordination of provincial plans, programmes, and their implementation.

The planning and development department of each province is headed by an additional chief secretary with a planning board to advise and assist in all matters relating to planning. The planning departments have administrative, economic, foreign aid, and project divisions. The economic division is headed by the Chief Economist and, like the Planning Commission, it has several sections staffed by professional economists and other specialists.

The planning departments have functions similar to those of the Planning Commission in respect of the provinces. However, the most important day-to-day duties of the departments are to approve development schemes, prepare and evaluate annual development programmes, and co-ordinate the activities of the development agencies in the province. The co-ordination with development agencies is done mainly through the related departments of the provincial government. These departments perform their planning duties through their own planning cells.

Working Parties: For the processing and approval of individual development schemes, besides the NEC/ECNEC, there are the Provincial Development Working Parties. In East Pakistan, however, this body is referred to as the Provincial Planning Authority.

The Provincial Development Working Party includes the Additional Chief Secretary (Development), members of the Planning Board, the Secretary Planning Department, the Secretary Finance Department, and the Secretaries of the related development departments.

Schemes approved by the Provincial Development Working Parties are submitted to the Central Development Working Party with the Planning Commission at the head of affairs. The latter is the primary organization for the approval of schemes of the Central Government.

No scheme can be transmitted upwards unless it is sanctioned by the Provincial Development Working Parties and then by the Central Development Working Party. Although the NEC/ECNEC has the final authority to approve or disapprove a scheme, approval of schemes, up to a certain level, by the Provincial and Central Development Working Parties is considered to be final.

Scheme Preparation: The preparation of development schemes has gone through a continuous process of change. Although micro-economic programming in Pakistan has not reached the desired level, yet the process has become sufficiently rigorous and complex. In fact, this is one of the reasons for Pakistan's success in development planning.

For a scheme to be approved and included in the development budget, it must be prepared in a form specified by the Planning Commission called Form P.C.I. Preparation of a P.C.I. is a difficult and time-consuming process which requires detailed specification of input and output relationships in both physical and financial terms, technical and financial feasibilities of an approved nature, phasing of expenditures and the like. For preparing the feasibility reports, the development agencies must secure approval on Form P.C. II by the Development Working Parties.

which must also approve the consultants, domestic or foreign, to be appointed for the preparation of the feasibility reports.

However, approval of the P.C. II does not mean that the corresponding P.C. I is automatically approved. When a scheme is finally submitted on P.C. I for approval, it is scrutinized by the appropriate development department. The scheme is further studied by the Planning Departments, Planning Commission, the Development Working Parties, and finally by the Executive Committee of the National Economic Council.

Evaluation: Every development agency has to submit quarterly progress reports on each development scheme under implementation in a prescribed form called P.C. IV.

In addition, and in order to watch progress, to inspect results, and to locate reasons for delay and other bottle-necks in implementation, there are project divisions in the Planning Commission and planning departments, staffed with experts in different fields. The project divisions are linked to district administrations through Additional Deputy Commissioners (Development). In East Pakistan, the implementation process and progress is specially watched by the Governor through periodic review meetings with Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners attended by planning and other development authorities in the province.

Because of the formal incorporation of the Works Programme in the Plan, the planning machinery includes the executive officers at thana and tehsil level and the members of the union councils. Furthermore, in preparing related studies for formulation and evaluation of plans and programmes, the planning authorities associate research organizations in universities and other semi-Government and private organizations.

Until recently, planning in the private sector was done through the preparation of an investment schedule and the adoption of requisite policy measures. From 1967, planning for the private sector has taken a new turn. To achieve better integration with over-all planning, the preparation of an annual programme for the private sector has been initiated. For this, the representatives of trade and industry in the private sector, officials of the Central and provincial development departments and of the Planning Commission and planning boards work in close co-operation.

Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1970-75: The Socio-economic objectives of the Fourth Plan were approved by the National Economic Council on November 1, 1968. The following day, a document outlining these objectives was issued to a Press Conference by the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission, Mr. M. M. Ahmad.

"On the eve of the Fourth Plan", the document points out, "we must critically review the past and prepare ourselves for the future. This is a task not only for the planners and the administrators, but for the entire nation. It is in this spirit that the frame work of the socio-economic objectives of the Fourth Plan is outlined in this

paper to invite comments and advice from our people who are going to be its main beneficiaries and whose participation alone will ensure the success of all our programmes.

"This is the first time that the socio-economic objectives of the Plan are being presented to the nation for a public debate. Such a debate offers both opportunities and hazards. There could be a temptation to be critical without being constructive. This should be resisted, for it will defeat the very purpose of the debate, the basic aim of which is to identify the hopes and aspirations of our people and to reach a national consensus on the economic and social objectives that the country should pursue during the Fourth Plan period and beyond."

These objectives are to be viewed against both past achievements and current problems, of which the following may be underlined:

— Gross National product rose by 55 per cent in eight years, ending 1967-68, with agricultural output showing an increase of 40 per cent and industrial production of 160 per cent.

— Foodgrain production is expected to increase by 8 million tons during the 1960s, opening up the way to surpluses for export.

— Annual development expenditure will rise from Rs. 800 million in 1959-60 to 11,000 million in 1969-70.

— In current prices, the annual per per capita income rose from Rs. 318 in 1959-60 to Rs. 515 in 1967-68; but about 75 per cent of all households in the country still receive an income of less than Rs. 200 per month, which is among the lowest in the world.

— The average daily calorie intake is 2,100 per head, as against the minimum of 2,600 recommlnded by WHO. The average diet is quantitatively poor and qualitatively unbalanced.

— In a population of 125 million, only about 20 million can read and write.

— There is only one doctor for every 7000 persons.

— About 1.2 million urban families have no decent shelter over their heads.

— One of the primary aims of the 20 year perspective plan was to eliminate disparity in per capita income between East and West Pakistan by 1985, and the Third Plan aims at reducing this by one fifth. But while, in the first four years of the Plan the Government allocated 54 per cent of the total public sector development expenditure to East Pakistan, and this increased from Rs. 690 million in 1960-61 to Rs. 3,050 million in 1967-68, insufficient mobilization of resources and enterprise in the private sector has slowed down the rate of progress. On the one hand, there is the evidence of considerable acceleration in the growth rate of East Pakistan, from 1.9 per cent per annuam in the 1950s to about 4.5 per cent in the

1960s. On the other hand, this rate is not sufficient to reduce disparities, since West Pakistan has achieved a growth rate of 6 per cent during the 1960s. A balancing positive factor, however, is that the acceleration of the growth rate has been faster in the east than in the west.

It is quite clear that the conflict between economic dynamism and social justice has become fairly sharp. Some international observers consider that the unemployment situation is disturbing, that real wages in the industrial sector show a declining trend, that the allocations for education, housing and social welfare are insufficient, that tax concessions to industry are over-generous and that there is an undue concentration of industrial wealth and economic power in the hands of relatively few large entrepreneurs. These criticisms require objective analysis and careful consideration.

The following are proposed as the main guiding objectives of the Fourth Plan:

i) to maintain the tempo of development through determined effort to secure the maximum and most efficient utilization of material assets and human resources;

ii) to reduce inter-regional and intra-regional disparity in per capita income;

iii) to make the economy increasingly self-reliant in most essential fields;

iv) to move towards a viable synthesis between the claims of economic growth and social justice through the pursuit of pragmatic policies;

v) to direct the forces of economic and social change towards the establishment of a just society.

The future growth strategy in the agricultural sector must take account of the following new factors:

i) Since the phase of import substitution in the foodgrain sector is coming to an end, future expansion will depend largely on finding foreign markets for agricultural surpluses and on the expansion and modernization of food processing industries.

ii) Further diversification and increased productivity in agriculture will be necessary to meet the emerging demand for edible oils, sugar, vegetables, poultry, fish, meat and dairy products.

iii) The spread of new agricultural technology has been confined so far mainly to the medium sized and large farms. An attempt will now have to be made to extend modern technology to the small farms, particularly in East Pakistan.

iv) The desirability and extent of mechanization will have to be determined in relation to the requirements of agricultural productivity and the problem of displacement of labour from rural areas.

Future industrial expansion is to be guided by the following principles:

i) Fuller utilization of installed capacity and balancing and modernization of existing plants will be given preference over further expansion.

ii) Greater allocations will be made for the domestic production of intermediate and investment goods, so as to reduce the current dependence of the country on imported capital goods from about 75 per cent, at present, to roughly 50 per cent by the end of the Fourth Plan period.

iii) More attention will be given to the exploitation of gas and mineral resources.

iv) Further industrialization will be closely geared to export efforts and based largely on domestic raw materials.

v) The productivity, efficiency and quality of production in the industrial sector will be improved so that it can compete freely both in and in the international market, without sizeable subsidies.

Based on these principles, future industrial expansions is expected to be led primarily by steel, machinery, chemicals, fertilizers, natural gas, mining, agricultural processing and export industries.

The Fourth Plan is to give very high priority to the development of human resources. This field has not received the attention it deserved and serious deficiencies and imbalances have appeared in the system of education and technical training. One of the foremost requirements now is to make the system of education more functional and gear it closely to the production of the right kind of Skill's at the right place for the right job. A high-level Commission on Manpower and Education (see the chapter on *Manpower*) is studying this entire field and is expected to submit its report to the Government in 1969, so as to receive careful consideration in the formulation of the Fourth Plan.

To reduce regional disparity, the focus of efforts must shift increasingly to devising a comprehensive policy package to stimulate private investment in East Pakistan and to stimulate investment in the crucial sector of agriculture.

Foreign loans and credits played a significant role in the development of Pakistan during the early 1960s, accounting for 35 per cent of its total development expenditure. (In June 1967 the total foreign debt contracted stood at about 36 billion dollars, repayable over a period of 17 years and at an average interest rate of 2.5 per cent, as against a national income return of about 33 dollars per 100 dollars obtained from abroad.) But recent developments and the climate of international aid make it imperative to reduce dependence on such aid as quickly as possible. For this purpose, a minimum target for the Fourth Plan period will be to save at least Rs. 25 out of every Rs. 100 of additional income generated in the future. This will leave considerable scope for increasing total consumption while taking the economy towards its cherished goal of self-reliance.

And endeavours to reach this goal

must be integrated with all the economic and social policies of the Fourth Plan. The following basic objectives are proposed to meet this requirement.

i) Almost 80 per cent of the development effort by the end of the Fourth Plan will have to be made by the country itself. This naturally means a tremendous effort to mobilize domestic savings and stimulate export earnings.

ii) An effort will have to be made to attain self-sufficiency in certain key sectors, so as to reduce the vulnerability of the economy to sudden changes in the aid climate. Till last year, Pakistan was importing 10 per cent of its foodgrain requirements, 80 per cent of its steel, 65 per cent of its fertilizer and 75 per cent of its total requirement of capital goods. So far as foodgrains are concerned, it is expected that the economy will attain self-sufficiency by the end of the Third Plan period, and enter the export market in a big way during the Fourth Plan period. Programmes are under way to meet most of the fertilizer requirement from domestic production by 1972. A substantial capacity for steel production will be established in the Fourth Plan. In the case of capital goods, it is proposed to produce roughly 50 per cent of the total requirements of the economy by 1975.

iii) Integration of defence industries with future development efforts will receive careful consideration in the formulation of the Fourth Plan. Basically, a vigorous development effort will itself support and reinforce the defence potential of the country. But at the same time, it is necessary that defence requirements should be carefully identified and built into the productive capacity of the country, so as to reach a position of self-reliance both in respect of development and defence.

iv) As already indicated above, top priority will be given to the development of the nation's human resources and the use of its own research and technology. In the last analysis, the concept of self-reliance cannot have much meaning unless we have a trained and skilled manpower which can take over the task of development on a growing scale.

The objectives of greater social justice can be advanced considerably within the following framework:

i) greater equality of opportunity;
ii) a fair return to the farmers and industrial workers for their labour;
iii) phased introduction of social security and medicare for a growing segment of the population;
iv) greater use of the fiscal machinery to promote better distribution of income and wealth.

A true Islamic society is a human brotherhood marked by the subordination of narrow personal interests to the broad collective good of the community. The motivation for action in this society lies in the belief that "the best of you is not the richest and the most powerful but the virtuous". Unless this fundamental principle of Islam is practised in everyday life, even

material progress will be frustrated by the decay of moral and spiritual values which in turn are the only safe-guards against waste and inefficiency resulting from corruption, exploitation and personal greed. We must not allow the opportunities of rapid economic development to obscure our moral values and destroy the best of our social institutions.

The desired synthesis between economic progress and preservation of moral and spiritual values can be achieved by pursuing certain inter-related goals: establishment of a welfare state, provision of equal opportunities for all and action in accordance with moral values.

TABLE I

Size and Sectoral Allocations
Under the 1st and 2nd Plan

(Million Rupees)

Sector	1st Plan (1955-60)				2nd Plan (1960-65)			
	Public	Private	Total	% of Total exp.	Public	Private	Total	% of Total exp.
1. Agriculture	1,207	—	1,207	9.5	2,515	905	3,420	14.9
2. Water & Power	2,697	—	2,697	21.3	4,140	250	4,390	19.1
3. Industry	1,622	1,750	3,372	26.7	1,460	3,660	5,120	22.3
4. Fuels & Minerals	—	—	—	—	450	550	1,000	4.3
5. Transport & Communication	1,666	450	2,116	16.7	2,725	1,325	4,050	17.6
6. Physical Planning & Housing	861	800	1,661	13.1	1,885	1,525	3,410	14.8
7. Education	580	—	580	4.6	950	100	1,050	4.6
8. Health	288	—	288	2.3	370	50	420	1.8
9. Social Welfare 10. Manpower	133	—	133	1.0	125	15	140	0.6
11. Works Programme	298	—	298	2.4	—	—	—	—
12. Miscellaneous	—	300	300	2.4	—	—	—	—
Total	9,350	3,300	12,650	100.0	14,620	8,380	23,000	100.0
Less Shortfall	1,850	—	1,850	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL (NET)	7,500	3,300	10,800	—	14,620	8,380	23,000	—

Source: Government of Pakistan, Planning Commission, *First and Second Five-Year Plans.*

Note: 2nd Plan also includes Rs. 1,600 million under Rural Works Programme making the size worth Rs. 24,600 millions. Investments in the Indus Basin replacement projects and a Rs. 5,900 million Master Plan for Waterlogging and Salinity were to provide further aid to agriculture.

TABLE II

Basic framework of Pakistan Long-term Growth 1965-85

in 1964-65 *prices* (Million Rupees)

	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1965-85 (annual compound rate of growth) %
A. Key Magnitudes						
1. Gross national product (market prices)	45,540	62,765	89,815	129,690	187,300	7.2
2. Gross investment	8,400	12,700	19,180	28,650	42,800	8.5
3. Gross domestic savings	4,710	8,515	15,180	26,150	40,800	11.4
4. External resources	3,690	4,185	4,000	2,500	2,000	—3.0
5. Exports	3,050	4,800	7,300	11,000	14,000	7.9
6. Imports	6,990[4]	8,985	11,300	13,500	16,000	4.2
B. *As a % of the GNP*						
1. Gross investment	18.4	20.2	21.4	22.1	22.9	
2. Gross domestic savings	10.3	13.6	16.9	20.2	21.8	
3. External resources	8.1	6.6	4.5	1.9	1.1	
4. Exports	6.7	7.6	8.1	8.5	7.5	
5. Imports	15.3	14.2	12.6	10.4	8.6	
C. *Key Assumptions*						
1. GNP growth rate (%)[1]	5.2	6.5	7.3	7.5	7.5	7.2[2]
2. Population growth rate (%)[1]	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.1	2.6[2]
3. Marginal rate of savings (%)[1]	22	22	25	28	25	25[2]
4. Capital-output ratio (gross)[1, 3]	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.9[2]
5. Marginal propensity to import (%)		12	9	6	4	6[2]

Notes: (1) In the preceding 5 years.
(2) In the preceding 20 years.
(3) Assuming no time-lag between investment and output.
(4) These imports were financed to the extent of Rs. 250 million by drawing upon foreign exchange reserves.

Source: Government of Pakistan, *Third Five-Year Plan* 1965-70.

TABLE III

Sectoral and Regional Allocation of Resources Under the Third Five-Year Plan 1965-70

(Milion Rupees)

Sector	East Pakistan			West Pakistan			Pakistan	
	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Total	Percentage
1. Agriculture	2,299	2,100	4,399	1,816	1,900	3,716	8,115	15.3
2. Water & Power	3,660	100	3,760	4,387	550	4,937	8,697	16.4
3. Industry	2,432	3,800	6,232	1,081	4,500	5,581	11,813	22.3
4. Fuel and Minerals	325	300	625	267	450	717	1,342	2.5
5. Transport & Communications	3,280	2,100	5,380	3,431	1,800	5,231	10,611	20.0
6. Physical Planning & Housing	1,364	2,350	3,714	1,113	1,650	2,763	6,477	12.2
7. Education	1,308	200	1,508	1,066	100	1,166	2,674	5.1
8. Health	631	20	651	544	20	564	1,215	2.3
9. Social Welfare	50	20	70	40	20	60	130	0.3
10. Manpower	51	10	61	35	10	45	106	0.2
11. Works Programme	1,200	—	1,200	620	—	620	1,820	3.4
Total	16,600	11,000	27,600	14,400	11,000	25,400	53,000	100.0
Less expected shortfall	600	—	600	400	—	400	1,000	
NET TOTAL	16,000	11,000	27,000	14,000	11,000	25,000	52,000	

Source: Third Five-Year Plan.

TABLE IV

Sources of Finance for Third Five-Year Plan

(Million Rupees)

Government Financed Sector		
Domestic Resources		
Surplus on Revenue Account[1]		9,315
Net Capital Receipts		3,185
Deficit Financing[2]		3,000
Possible Additional Resources		1,000
	Total:	16,500
External Resources		
Project loans (including technical assistance)		7,000
Commodity loans		5,500
PL-480 Counterpart Funds		1,000
	Total:	13,500
Privately-financed Sector		
Private Domestic Savings		19,000
Loans and credits in Foreign Exchange		2,300
Private Foreign Investment		700
	Total:	22,000
	Grand Total:	52,000

Source: Third Five-Year Plan.

Notes: 1. Revised estimates.
2. This includes Rs. 1,700 million of deficit financing already incurred in the first two years of the plan.

TABLE V

Revised Phasing of the Third Plan

(Million Rupees)

Year	Government Financed Sector		Private Sector		Total	
	Original phasing	Revised phasing	Original phasing	Revised phasing	Original phasing	Revised phasing
1965-66	4,700	3,420	3,700	3,700	8,400	7,120
1966-67	5,300	5,000	4,050	4,000	9,350	9,000
1967-68	6,000	6,000	4,350	4,300	10,350	10,300
1968-69	6,700	7,100	4,700	4,800	11,400	11,900
1969-70	7,300	8,480	5,200	5,200	12,500	13,680
1965-70	30,000	30,000	22,000	22,000	52,000	52,000

Source: Third Five-Year Plan.

TABLE VI

Composition of GNP at 1959-60 *Factor Cost*

(Million Rupees)

Sectors	1949-50 value	1954-55 value	1959-60 value	1964-65 value	1966-67 value
Agriculture	14,669	15,654	16,753	19,761	20,629
	(60.0)	(56.1)	(53.3)	(48.1)	(45.7)
Manufacturing	1,433	2,220	2,930	4,711	5,291
	(5.8)	(7.9)	(9.3)	(11.5)	(11.7)
Construction	238	415	651	1,921	2,052
	(1.0)	(1.5)	(2.0)	(4.7)	(4.5)
Mining	27	45	70	131	142
	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)
Services and others	8,099	9,582	11,068	14,524	17,075
	(33.1)	(34.3)	(35.2)	(35.4)	(37.8)
Total	24,466	27,908	31,439	41,058	45,189
	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)

Source: C.S.O., *Monthly Statistical Bulletin*, March, 1968.

Note: (i) Figures within parenthesis indicate percentage share of the respective sectors.
(ii) 1966-67 figures are provisional.

TABLE VII

Regional and Sectoral Distribution of Public Sector Development Expenditure During the Second Plan Period (1960-65)

(Million Rupees)

Sector	Centre	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total expenditure	Total Plan Target	Col. (4) as % of Col. (5)
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
Agriculture	306	802	748	1,856	2,515	74
Manufacturing and Mining	682	651	285	1,618	1,910	85
Water and Power	316	1,434	2,591	4,341	4,140	105
Transport and Communications	1,206	856	1,010	3,072	2,725	113
Physical Planning and Housing	557	624	485	1,666	1,885	88
Education and Training	107	415	391	913	955	96
Health and Medical Services	49	195	156	400	370	108
Social Welfare and Manpower	18	40	17	75	120	63
Total	3,241	5,017	5,683	13,941	14,620	95

Source: Government of Pakistan, *Final Evaluation of the Second Five-Year Plan*, Karachi, 1966.

TABLE VIII

Public Sector Development Expenditure by Executing Authorities during 1965-66 *to* 1967-68

(Million Rupees)

Sector	1965-66 (Actual)				1966-67 (Estimated Actual)				1967-68 (Preliminary Estimate)				Total Expenditures during 1965-68
	E.P.	W.P.	Centre	Total	E.P.	W.P.	Centre	Total	E.P.	W.P.	Centre	Total	
Agriculture	150	169	20	339	207	183	32	422	310	216	54	580	1,341
Manufacturing & Mining	215	93	80	388	291	89	105	485	348	123	79	550	1,423
Water & Power	348	463	72	883	631	623	71	1,325	763	737	100	1,600	3,808
Transport & Communication	201	339	202	742	260	361	411	1,032	300	400	420	1,120	2,894
Physical Planning & Housing	79	43	155	277	126	75	146	347	154	102	169	425	1,049
Education & Training	82	55	5	142	152	68	15	235	180	99	26	305	682
Health & Medical Services	75	56	12	143	78	56	14	148	100	70	25	195	486
Social Welfare Services	1	2	3	6	3	2	3	8	6	7	2	15	29
Manpower Training & Labour	2	2	—	4	4	3	—	7	5	4	1	10	21
Works Programme	101	86	2	189	121	17	3	141	126	70	4	200	530
Total	1,254	1,308	551	3,113	1,873	1,477	800	4,150	2,292	1,828	880	5,000	12,263

Note: These figures are derived from Government Budgets.

Source: *Mid-Plan Review* (*Third Plan*) 1968.

Agriculture

PAKISTAN's agricultural industry, comprising crop production (including horticulture), animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries, constitutes the largest segment of the country's economy. The contribution of the agricultural sector to the gross national product is about half of the total; about 75 per cent of the nation's total exports consist of raw and processed agriculture produce; and a preponderant majority of the population lives in rural areas and is dependent — directly or indirectly — on agriculture.

Realizing its importance, the Third Plan established the following objectives for agriculture:

(a) to increase the real income of farmers at least at the same rate as the per capita increase in the non-agricultural sector;

(b) to move towards self-sufficiency in the nation's food requirements to the fullest extent compatible with other needs of the economy, including foreign trade, aiming at the same time at improved nutritional standards in food consumption; and

(c) to promote agricultural development on a sound, self-sufficient basis by further improvements in agricultural organization, and by intensified programmes, such as the development of marketing, co-operatives, storage, credit, educational, and other institutional and infrastructural facilities.

The Third Five-Year Plan made liberal allocations for agriculture, and these, for various sub-sectors of agriculture, together with recent expenditures and allocations for 1967-68, are shown in Table I.

While the total area of Pakistan is 234 million acres, the total cultivated area is about 63 million acres. Land utiliza-

tion is shown in Table II.

West Pakistan is faced with the twin menaces of salinity and water-logging, while frequent floods harm agriculture in East Pakistan. These problems are being tackled in a planned manner and on an extensive scale, hand in hand with the water development programme. The benefits expected from the implementation of all such programmes during the Third Plan period are summarized in Table III.

A number of Government agencies serve the agricultural sector and promote development activities. In the executive sense, agriculture is a provincial subject and the implementation of nearly all the executive work carried out is the responsibility of the provincial Governments. The Ministry of Agriculture in the Central Government is responsible for co-ordination, planning, census and statistics, maintenance of good reserves and for dealing with foreign agencies. Each province has a Department of Agriculture (headed by an officer with the rank of secretary to the Government) which comprises a number of technical directorates concerned with different subjects in the agricultural sector, crop production (agriculture proper), animal husbandry,

Farmers using a mechanical thresher in Comilla, East Pakistan.



forestry, and so on. In each province, there is also an Agricultural Development Corporation for supplying farmers with seed, fertilizer, advice, equipment on loan, and for quicker and more intensive development work in selected project areas and fields of activity.

Over-all Progress: As a result of various development activities undertaken by the Government, considerable progress has been achieved in agriculture during the Second and Third Five-Year Plans, as is evident from the index of production given below:

Index of Agricultural Production
(Base 1959-60=100)

Year	Index
1947-48	80
1949-50	86
1954-55	90
1959-60	100
1964-65	123
1965-66	124
1966-67	123
1967-68	143

Source: Pakistan Economic Survey.

The most noteworthy achievement in 1967-68 was the spurt in the output of Mexi-Pak wheat and IRRI rice varieties, which are most suitable for cultivation with chemical fertilizer. This achievement has gone far to realize the Government's aim of securing self-sufficiency in the production of food-grains and eliminating imports of wheat and rice, which were a great strain on foreign exchange resources. With an estimated additional production of 3.9 million tons of food-grains in 1967-68, it is expected that the goal of self-sufficiency will be achieved by 1970, if not earlier.

Crop Production: The major crops grown in Pakistan are rice, wheat, maize, jawar, bajra, gram, pulses, sugarcane, oil seeds, cotton, jute, tea and tobacco. The acreage and production of major crops is shown in Table IV-V.

The response of the Pakistani farmer to all that the Government is doing to promote agrarian change is positive and indeed enthusiastic. The results so far achieved are highly encouraging. A special study of the agricultural scene in West Pakistan has put it thus:

"Whether the agriculture of West Pakistan has reached the so-called 'take-off' stage, or is merely on the threshold of 'take-off', surely the 'agricultural revolution' is in process. The wheat yields of the present R*abi* season provide living testimony. Not only have farmers changed to new recommended wheat varieties in unprecedented proportions, but they are also expanding acreage, and apply chemical fertilizers in quantities which, while below some of the recommendations, appear to be larger than anything seen before."

Programmes: To increase agricultural production, the Government is relying mainly on improved irrigation and drainage, greater use of chemical fertilizers, soil reclamation, use of improved seeds, plant protection, educational research and extension. Some achievements in these respects are shown in Table VI, (i)-(iii).



A Mexi-Pak wheat field in West Pakistan.

Training: To meet the need for technical personnel to implement the development programmes, educational and training facilities are being expanded and improved. Pakistan has three agricultural colleges and two agricultural universities (one in each province) which award graduate and post-graduate degrees in agricultural sciences. In addition, there are a number of 'training institutes' where lower level (non-degree diploma) training is imparted primarily to personnel in the lower cadres for field work, and to farmers. Further expansion is envisaged under the Third Plan.

Research: This has been a matter of serious concern and much improvement: streamlining and expansion took place in these fields of activity during the Second and Third Five-Year Plans. For meeting specialized research needs and for concentration on important crops, three central research bodies exist, namely, the Agricultural Research Council, the Pakistan Central Cotton Committee, and the Pakistan Central Jute Committee. The cotton and jute committees also carry out industrial research with respect to these commodities.

At the provincial level there are four research institutes, each of which has a number of research stations under them.

There are also two (agricultural) atomic research stations. Higher yielding varieties and improved cultivation practices are continuously being pursued.

Mechanization: Both the provincial Governments own and operate agricultural tractors and tools which farmers can hire for land development and cultivation. Farmers also receive assistance in pump irrigation and sinking tube-wells. The measure of this kind of help is well illustrated in the following paragraphs.

The number of power pumps hired out by the East Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation during the year 1966-67 was 3,990 as against 2,238 in the year 1964-65. The area irrigated by means of these pumps during 1966-67 was 225,000 acres as against 131,000 acres in the year 1964-65. During the year 1966-67, 3,000 more pumps were purchased. With these additional power pumps, it is anticipated that the EPADC will hire out over 6,000 power pumps during 1967-68 for irrigating an area of about 400,000 acres. Another 14,000 power pumps are to be purchased by the Corporation during 1967-68, which will be put to use in the following year. In addition, 93 tractors were used by the EPADC to reclaim 14,000 acres during 1966-67, and it is expected that an area of 30,000 acres will be reclaimed during 1967-68.

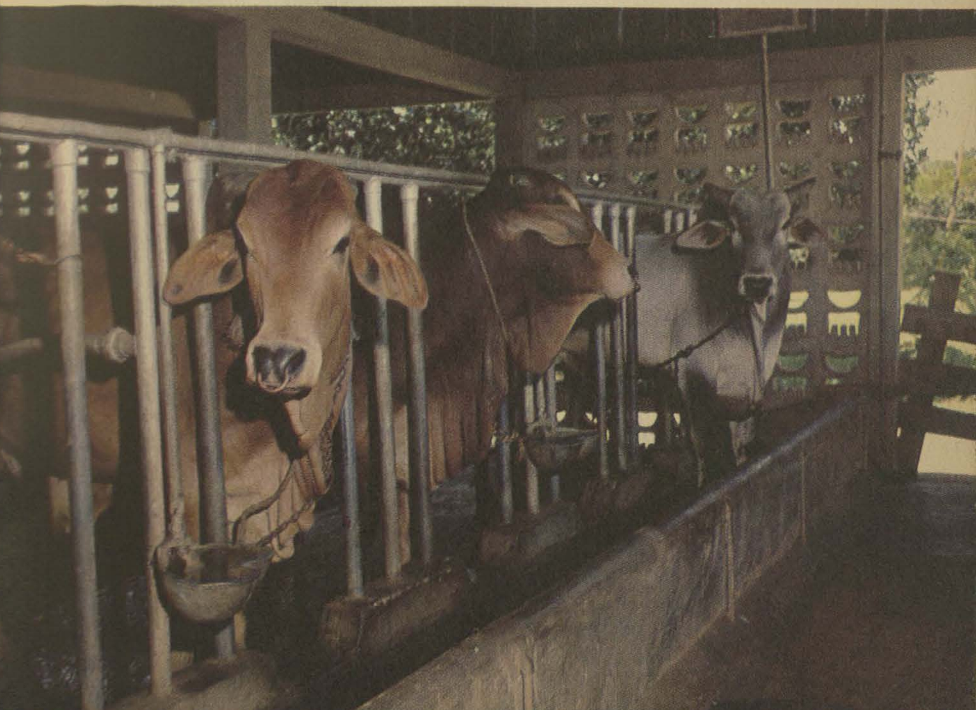
A jute field in East Pakistan





Sowing paddy in the Sind area.

Cowshed of a cattle farm near Dacca.





A modern farmer with his tractor.

Farmers reaping paddy in East Pakistan.





Farmers using Japanese weeder in Comilla, East Pakistan.

During the first two years of the Third Plan, 760 bulldozers and 85 wheel type tractors were procured by the West Pakistan Agriculture Department for work in the settled districts. It is estimated that about 175,000 acres were developed during 1965-66 and 1966-67 with the help of over 200 bulldozers put to intensive use. It is further expected that about 200,000 acres during 1967-68 will be developed with the heavy earth-moving machinery available for the purpose. About 60,000 acres were cultivated in West Pakistan by the use of wheel type tractors during 1966-67, against 35,000 acres during 1964-65.

In addition, about 5,000 tube-wells were sunk for farmers by the Agriculture Department during the first two years of the current Plan. The target for the year 1967-68 is the installation of 3,500 tube-wells by putting the entire machinery available for the purpose to full use. A total number of 635 improved implements, mainly consisting of improved ploughs, *triphali* and single-row cotton drills, were distributed in West Pakistan at subsidized rates during the last two years.

Marketing: To promote rational marketing of agricultural products, there is, under the Central Ministry of Agriculture, a Directorate of Marketing and Agricultural Statistics. The functions

of this Directorate include market surveys, grading of agricultural products, gathering and dissemination of statistics pertaining to prices, acreage and production. The provincial Governments also have their own marketing directorates, which carry out surveys, gather and publish price statistics, and enforce marketing laws, rules and regulations.

Food-grain Storage: Both the Central and provincial Governments operate food-grain storage programmes. Storage space is needed for keeping sufficient food-grain reserves and also for storing rice intended for export. The Third Plan storage targets are given in Table VII.

Fisheries: Pakistan possesses rich fishery resources. Both the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea are considered good fishing areas by international standards. Inland rivers, lakes and other water areas also offer good scope for development. The development of fisheries is important to Pakistan both for increasing the protein intake in the daily diet of the people and for earning foreign exchange through exports. Fish export earnings at present amount to about Rs. 100 million. The Third Plan target stands

Melons for sale at a fruit market in Quetta.





A net full of fish in East Pakistan.

at Rs. 250 million.

Fish production in recent years is shown in Table VII.

Both provincial Governments, as well as the Central Government, have their Directorates of Fisheries, with staff extending to the field level. Each Directorate, within its respective area of operations, covers development work, extension activities, and also research and training.

Animal Husbandry: Live-stock and their products account for about 20 per cent of the entire annual value earned by agriculture. This sub-sector is also important from the standpoint of the quality of Pakistani diet, for providing draft animals for agricultural production, and for the supply of hides, skins, wool and other raw materials essential to some of the country's industries, and for export.

An agricultural census was taken in 1960, when the following position was disclosed:

Cattle	33.5 million
Buffaloes	8.4 ,,
Goats	12.9 ,,
Sheep	10.3 ,,
Poultry	30.1 ,,

The population of horses, donkeys, mules and camels has been estimated as follows:

Horses	497,010
Donkeys	925,120
Mules	41,000
Camels	600,900
Pigs	10,000

Data on major animal products are given below:

Major Animal Products

Item	Annual production	Value of exports in 1966-67
		(million Rs.)
Wool (a)	36 million lbs.	31.5
Animal Hair	8 million lbs.	10.3
Hides (b)	6.8 million pieces	
Skins (b)	14.2 million pieces	10.0

Source: Ministry of Agriculture.

(a) About half the production is exported.

(b) Mostly consumed by local tanning industry.

Both the provinces have their own Directorates of Animal Husbandry, with staff extending to the field level, which look after the development of the country's animal wealth. Veterinary hospitals and dispensaries, including mobile dispensaries, are operated for both preventive and curative measures.

Farmers threshing paddy in East Pakistan.





A plant protection plane spraying crops with insecticides.

To upgrade live-stock research and breeding, special farms supply pedigree animals of improved breeds.

Land Reforms: One of the first acts of President Ayub Khan after taking up the helm of affairs was to reform land holdings. The farmers were freed from the yoke of big landlords and from the jagirdars. In West Pakistan, the maximum holding was fixed at 500 acres of irrigated land or 1,000 acres of unirrigated land. To eliminate the division of holdings to uneconomic units, a minimum limit was also fixed. Consolidation of fragmented holdings was taken up vigorously to undo the ill effects of fragmentation. Many other reforms pertaining to land administration were also introduced, and are being implemented in both the provinces.

When the maximum limit for land holdings was fixed in West Pakistan, the 'excess' land of the big landlords was taken over by the Government and the owners were compensated. The lands thus resumed were sold to existing tenants and to landless peasants on an instalment basis. Out of an area of about 2.3 million acres resumed in West Pakistan, about one-third was given to tenants on easy instalments. The compensation payable for the resumed area was assessed at Rs. 89.18

million, and bonds for about half this amount were redeemed through cash payments.

Apart from other objectives, one of the aims of the land reforms was to encourage owner-operated farming with the idea that such a system would be most conducive to production.

Rural Credit: The non-institutional sources of rural credit comprise traders, middlemen, friends, relatives and commercial banks. The commercial banks have played a significant role in providing credit for agriculture, although it is largely of an indirect character, to stockists, traders and exporters as well as for fertilizers.

Realizing the importance of providing adequate rural credit for enhancing production, the Government took steps to augment the availability of institutional credit. On one hand, the operations of the existing credit institutions were expanded and streamlined while, on the other hand, new institutions were created. The following are the main institutional sources of agricultural credit.

Taccavi Loans: Administered directly by the provincial Governments with the head of the district administration authorizing and arranging the distribution of loans through the revenue or agricultural officer. During 1966-67, Rs. 19 million were advanced as taccavi loans

Spraying Chemicals for pest control.



in East Pakistan and Rs. 9.6 million in West Pakistan.

Co-operative Societies: These are part of the co-operative movement in Pakistan, and they advance loans to their members.

ADBP: Established in 1961 by merging the Agricultural Development Finance Corporation and the Agricultural Bank, by June 1967, the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan had 121 branches and pay offices all over the country. It has disbursed Rs. 257 million by way of loans in 1965-67.

Forestry: Pakistan has less than 10 million acres of forest area, amounting to some 4.5 per cent of the total land area of the country. However, only about half of this area is capable of producing timber or fire-wood, while the rest consists of scrub forest, pasture or waste. West Pakistan forests include coniferous (alpine, fir and pine types), deciduous forests, mangroves, irrigated plantations and hill and inland shrub forests. East Pakistan forests include mangroves and mixed sub-tropical evergreen and deciduous species.

The forest output of Pakistan is insufficient, necessitating the import of timber and wood. Such imports were in the order of Rs. 45 million in 1966-67.

The Government is alive to the situation and much stress has been laid on forest development in the Five-Year Plans. On the one hand, extraction is being stepped up from the existing forests which are being better managed. On the other hand, re-forestation and afforestation are being scientifically and energetically carried out. Adequately staffed Forest Directorates exist in both provinces for forest development and preservation and there are adequate facilities for teaching, training and forestry research, in both East and West Pakistan.

TABLE I

Agriculture: Financial Targets and Achievements

(Million Rupees)

S. No.	Sub-Sector	Estimated actual expenditure 1965-66	1966-67	Total (1965-66—1966-67)	Revised allocation of Third Plan (1965-70)	Percentage implementation (Col. 5 of Col. 6)	ADP allocation for 1967-68
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Agricultural Development Corporation (Administration and General)	2.85	7.87	10.72	99.55	10.8	24.50
2.	Manures and Fertilizers	114.58	129.75	244.33	879.20	27.8	181.66
3.	Plant Protection	40.31	89.97 (0.01)	130.28 (0.01)	583.73	22.3	106.70
4.	Seed Multiplication and Distribution	8.88 (1.38)	16.03 (1.69)	24.91 (3.07)	90.76	24.1	20.99 (2.00)
5.	Mechanization	26.88 (2.87)	39.56 (4.50)	66.44 (7.37)	417.08	14.2	101.35 (14.70)
6.	Soils	3.05	3.59	6.64	24.64	26.9	5.74
7.	Agricultural Economics and Statistics	0.37	0.21	0.58	11.67	5.0	1.25
8.	Agricultural Marketing	0.73	0.89	1.62	26.94	6.0	5.20 (0.19)
9.	Agricultural Extension	4.35	3.93 (0.16)	8.28 (0.16)	85.02	9.6	13.48 (0.08)
10.	Agricultural Research	2.89	3.50 (0.03)	6.39 (0.03)	91.09	7.0	19.45
11.	Agricultural Education	12.24	22.69	34.93	112.58	31.0	18.76
12.	Soil Conservation	4.62	5.28	9.90	97.12	10.2	12.98
13.	Food-grains Storage	21.62	19.69	41.31	258.60	16.0	66.50
14.	Colonization	13.00	16.31	29.31	93.82	31.2	16.75
15.	Animal Husbandry	11.13	12.53	23.66	144.82	16.3	21.82 (0.75)
16.	Range Management	1.58	1.39	2.97	15.60	19.0	2.41
17.	Forestry	18.37	22.12	40.49	247.17	16.4	37.96
18.	Fisheries	5.71	10.68	16.39	169.38	9.7	30.60 (1.00)
19.	Land Reforms	6.39 (5.67)	7.10 (5.7)	13.49 (10.74)	13.50	22.4	8.34 (6.10)
20.	Co-operatives	5.30	10.88	16.18	104.61	15.5	13.20
21.	Co-operative Farming on Comilla basis	4.97	5.05	10.02	51.68	19.4	10.00
22.	Underdeveloped Areas	1.87	4.56	6.43	31.30	20.5	6.87

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
23. Miscellaneous		—	—	—	2.10	—	0.04
24. Equity capital (Agricultural Development Bank)		—	—	—	75.00	—	10.00
25. Block Provision		—	—	—	370.54	—	—
26. Basic Democracies and Local Government		—	—	—	17.77	—	—
27. Unaccounted for in West Pakistan		(—)3.44	—	(—)3.44	—	—	—
28. Unaccounted for in East Pakistan		30.00	—	30.00	—	—	—
	Total	338.25 328.33*	433.58 422.12*	771.83 750.45*	4,115.26	18.2	736.55 711.73**
Capital Liability of Gov. Account:							
(i) Co-operatives		—	—	—	—	—	—
(ii) Rural Credit (Taccavi)		10.74	—	10.74	—	—	—
(iii) Loans to Tea Gardens		—	—	—	—	—	—
	GRAND TOTAL	348.99 339.07*	433.58 422.12*	782.57 761.19*	4,115.26	18.5	736.55 711.73**

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate recoveries.

*These represent net expenditure, i.e., total expenditure incurred less recoveries realised.

**These represent net allocations, i.e., total allocations minus recoveries.

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE II

Land Utilization, by Provinces

	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
		in million acres	
Total area	35.3	198.7	234.0
Not shown area	20.3	33.4	53.7
Current fallow	1.4	8.0	9.4
Total cultivated area	21.7	41.4	63.1
Forest area	5.5	3.1	8.6
Area not available for cultivation	5.6	31.8	37.4
Other cultivable land (excluding current fallow)	1.9	24.1	26.0
Area not reported	0.6	98.3	98.9

Source: Third Five-Year Plan.

TABLE III

Estimated area under crops and likely additions during the Second and the Third Plans as a result of irrigation and drainage projects

	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
		in million acres	
Cropped area at the end of the First Plan	26.6	34.2	60.8
Additions to cropped area by the end of the Second Plan	0.4	1.4	1.8
Additions to the cropped area during the Third Plan	2.1	3.7(a)	5.8
Total cropped area expected by the end of the Third Plan	29.1	39.3	68.4
Existing area estimated to have been improved during the Second Plan	2.4	5.8	8.2
Existing area likely to be improved during the Third Plan	2.7	8.3(b)	11.0

(a) These figures are derived after deducting the area estimated likely to go out of cultivation as a result of spread of water-logging and salinity.

(b) The cultivated area served by irrigation and drainage schemes will be about 17.1 million acres. However, the area benefited during the Third Plan will be 8.3 million acres.

Source: Third Five-Year Plan.

TABLE

Year beginning July 1st

Acreage of

Crop	Average 1955-56 to 1959-60			Average 1960-61 to 1964-65		
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Rice	22,767	20,114	2,653	24,954	21,879	3,075
Wheat	11,741	114	11,627	12,464	148	12,316
Bajra	2,066	1	2,065	2,017	—	2,017
Jowar	1,173	1	1,172	1,251	2	1,249
Maize	1,109	7	1,102	1,202	17	1,185
Barley	557	68	489	529	69	460
Total foodgrains	39,413	20,305	19,108	42,417	22,115	20,302
Gram	3,198	150	3,048	3,028	137	2,891
Total food-grains	42,611	20,455	22,156	45,445	22,252	23,193
Sugarcane	1,161	258	903	1,476	318	1,158
Rape and mustard	1,919	508	1,411	1,727	537	1,190
Sesamum	206	142	64	214	132	82
Jute	1,466	1,466	—	1,732	1,732	—
Cotton	3,494	52	3,442	3,499	40	3,459
Tea	77	77	—	84	84	—
Tobacco	195	110	85	214	103	111
Total cash crops	8,518	2,613	5,905	8,946	2,946	6,000
TOTAL PRINCIPAL CROPS	51,129	23,068	28,061	54,391	25,198	29,193

a First estimate.
b Second estimate.
c Third estimate.
d Last two years' average.
e Below 500 acres.

IV

Principal Crops (In thousand acres)

1965-66			1966-67			1967-68		
Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
26,573	23,130	3,443	25,897	22,414	3,483	27,945	24,437	3,508
12,874	136	12,738	13,385	180	13,205	15,370*b*	192*b*	15,178*b*
2,075	*e*	2,075	2,069	*e*	2,069	2,258	*e*	2,258
1,469	2	1,467	1,382	2	1,380	1,446	2	1,444
1,349	10	1,339	1,377	9	1,368	1,511	9	1,502
436	54	382	456	56	400	534*a*	57*a*	477*a*
44,776	23,332	21,444	44,566	22,661	21,905	49,064	24,697	24,367
2,778	135	2,643	2,724	146	2,578	2,911*b*	152*b*	2,759*b*
47,554	23,467	24,087	47,290	22,807	24,483	51,975	24,849	27,126
1,855	379	1,476	2,018	413	1,605	1,657	412	1,245
1,565	474	1,091	1,622	486	1,136	1,713*a*	505*a*	1,208*a*
194	124	70	199	124	75	124*a*	42*a*	82*a*
2,198	2,198	—	2,165	2,165	—	2,354	2,354	—
3,895	37	3,858	4,039	36	4,003	4,281	36	4,245
95	95	—	98	98	—	101	101	—
253	109	144	290	113	177	272*d*	111*d*	161*d*
10,055	3,416	6,639	10,431	3,435	6,996	10,502	3,561	6,941
57,609	26,883	30,726	57,721	26,242	31,479	62,477	28,410	34,067

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE

Year beginning July 1st

Production of

Crop	Average 1955-56 to 1959-60 Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Average 1960-61 to 1964-65 Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Rice	8,409	7,514	895	10,842	9,701	1,141
Wheat	3,644	24	3,620	4,124	37	4,087
Bajra	322	*f*	322	375	*f*	375
Jowar	226	*f*	226	247	1	246
Maize	464	2	462	490	5	485
Barley	153	14	138	132	16	116
Total food-grains	13,218	7,554	5,663	16,210	9,760	6,450
Gram	674	36	638	664	35	629
Total food crops	13,892	7,590	6,301	16,874	9,795	7,079
Sugarcane	13,975	3,819	10,156	20,542	4,943	15,599
Rape and mustard	325	90	235	314	97	217
Sesamum	33	27	6	33	24	9
Jute	1,063 (5,954)	1,063 (5,954)	— —	1,075 (6,020)	1,075 (6,020)	— —
Cotton	294 (1,681)	3 (16)	291 (1,665)	355 (2,027)	3 (16)	352 (2,011)
Tea	23 (52.5)	23 (52.5)	— —	24 (54.2)	24 (54.2)	— —
Tobacco	90 (202.3)	36 (82.2)	54 (120.1)	99 (221.1)	28 (62.7)	71 (158.4)
Total cash crops	15,803	5,061	10,742	22,442	6,194	16,248
TOTAL PRINCIPAL CROPS	29,695	12,651	17,043	39,316	15,989	23,327

Note: Figures in brackets indicate '000' bales for jute and cotton and million pounds for tea and tobacco.
a Last two years' average.
b Second estimate.
c Third estimate.
f Below 500 acres.
*Targets.

V

Principal Crops (In thousand tons)

1965-66			1966-67			1967-68		
Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
11,631	10,335	1,296	10,767	9,424	1,343	12,470*c*	10,995*c*	1,475*c*
3.889	35	3,854	4,324	58	4,266	6,257*b*	57*b*	6,200*b*
364	*f*	364	365	—	365	407	*f*	407
270	*f*	270	273	—	273	286	*f*	286
534	3	531	581	3	578	782	3	779
94	12	82	102	15	87	99*a*	14*a*	85*a*
16,782	10,385	6,397	16,412	9,500	6,912	20,301	11,069	9,232
574	43	531	570	49	521	546*b*	47*b*	549*b*
17,356	10,428	6,928	16,982	9,549	7,433	20,897	11,116	9,781
29,507	7,550	21,957	29,705	8,070	21,635	25,954	7,589	18,365
274	95	179	302	102	200	288*a*	99*a*	189*a*
31	24	7	34	27	7	33*a*	26*a*	7*a*
1,195 (6,693)	1,195 (6,693)	— —	1,143 (6,400)	1,143 (6,400)	— —	1,200 (6,722)	1,200 (6,722)	— —
411 (2,347)	3 (16)	407.9 (2,331)	458 (2,020)	2.6 (15)	455.9 (2,605)	493.8 (2,822)	2.6 (15)	491.2 (2,807)
27 (60.0)	27 (60.0)	— —	28 (63.0)	28 (63.0)	— —	28.8 (64.5)	28.8 (64.5)	— —
135 (302.8)	27 (60.2)	108 (242.6)	175 (392)	37.5 (84)	137.5 (308)	155*a* (347.4)	32.2*a* (72.1)	122.7*a* (275.3)
31,580	8,921	22,658.9	31,845	9,410.1	22,435.4	28,152.5	8,977.6	19,174.9
48,936	19,349	29,586.9	48,827	18,959.1	29,868.4	49,049.5	20,093.6	28,955.9

Source: Department of Marketing Intelligence and Agricultural Statistics.

TABLE VI

(i) Fertilizer distribution

Year	Quantity distributed East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total	Percentage increase over 1964-65
	(thousand nutrient tons)			percent
1964-65	45	87	132	
1965-66	54	71	125	(—) 5
1966-67	76	116	192	(+) 45
1967-68*	125	260	385	(+)192

*Planned distribution.
Source: Planning Commission.

(ii) Improved seed distributed

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
		(thousand tons)	
1964-65	9	31	40
1965-66	8	56	64
1966-67	6	38	44
1967-68*	12	128**	140

Source: Planning Commission
*Planned distribution.
**Including 59,000 tons of Mexican wheat seed.

Special attention is being paid to Mexi-Pak wheat and IRRI rice seed.

(iii) Plant Protection

	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68*
		(in million acres)		
Curative measures:				
East Pakistan	3.24	2.82	3.89	5.20
West Pakistan	3.23	2.56	2.30	5.00
Total	6.47	5.38	6.19	10.20
Preventive measures:				
East Pakistan	0.33	1.09	0.77	6.09
West Pakistan	2.10	1.67	0.43	6.00
Total	2.43	2.76	1.20	12.09

Source: Planning Commission.
*Planned coverage.

TABLE VII

*Grain storage capacity and targets**

Executing Agency	Total requirement	Availability end of Second Plan	Third Plan target for additional capacity
	(in thousand tons)		
East Pakistan	750	639	250**
West Pakistan	644	519	125
Centre	653	433	220
Total:	2,047	1,591	595

*These targets are however under review.
**Inclusive of 140,000 tons capacity replacement.

TABLE VIII

Province	Fish production during			Increase or decrease in 1966 over 1964
	1964	1965	1966	
	(000 metric tons)			per cent
East Pakistan	250	259	259	4
Inland	204	214	214	5
Marine	46	45	45	(—) 2
West Pakistan	111	120	153	38
Inland	23	22	23	—
Marine	88	98	130	48
All Pakistan	361	379	412	14
Inland	227	236	237	4
Marine	134	143	175	31

Source: Planning Commission

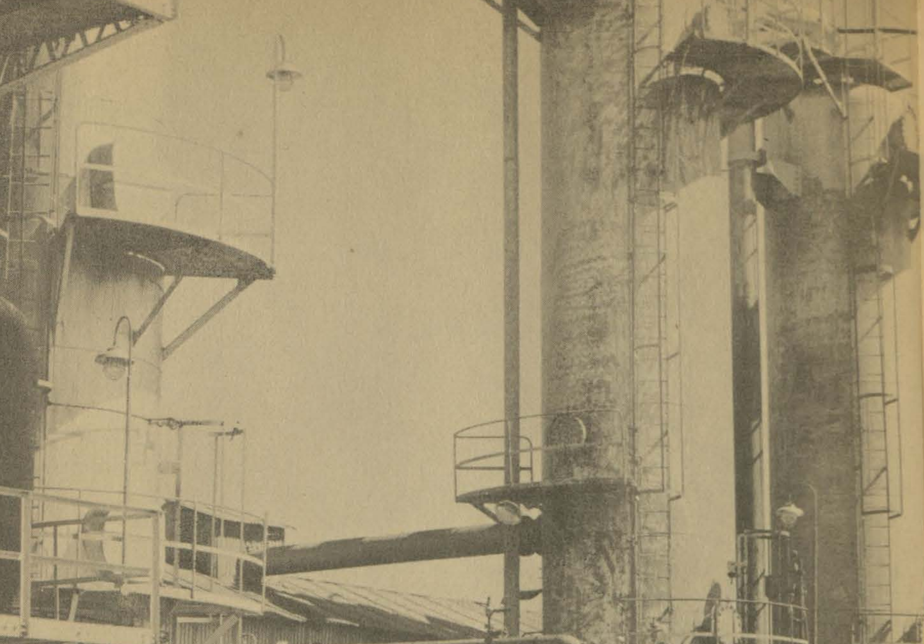
Industry

At the time of Independence, there were only 34 factories in Pakistan with a total daily employment of 26,400 persons. Although Pakistan inherited 20 per cent of the Sub-continent's population, her share in industry was less than 7 per cent and even this consisted of small scale and minor industrial units. Thus for instance, Pakistan was the home of jute, but had not a single jute factory!

Policy: The first industrial policy announced after Independence, stressed the following basic points:

— priority to industries based on indigenous raw materials, such as jute, cotton, hides and skins;
— free enterprise in the private sector, subject to certain conditions;
— national ownership of public utilities;
— development of consumer goods industries for import substitution;
— Planning for heavy industries within the framework of long-term objectives;
— demarcation of responsibilities between the Central and provincial Governments.

Various institutional devices were introduced to implement this policy. These included setting up the Development Board, the Pakistan Industrial Finance Corporation, later replaced by the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan, the Pakistan Industiral Credit and Investment Corporation, the Tariff Commission, Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation, later divided into two corporations, one for each zone of the country, Directorate of Cottage and Small Industries, the Refugee Rehabilitation Finance Corporation and the First Five-Year Plan 1955-60.



Partial view of the Fenchuganj Fertilizer Factory, Sylhet.

The first co-ordinated arrangement for effective implementation of a comprehensive industrial policy was, however, organized on the initiative of Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan after he took over the reins of administration in 1958. The industrial policy released in February 1959 embodied the following principles:

(a) main reliance on private enterprise and initiative within the guidelines of the targets and strategy of Development Plans;
(b) recognition of the useful role of foreign investment; suitable safeguards and concessions for its attraction;
(c) expansion of production, increased employment and extensive training of technical personnel, with the ultimate aim of raising the people's standard of living;
(d) fullest utilization of raw materials available in the country and attention to industries based on agriculture;
(c) preference for the economically backward areas in the location of industries, so that benefits of development are equally shared by the people of all regions;
(f) promotion of medium, small and cottage industries.

Enforcement of Policy: This policy has been backed by appropriate administrative and organizational measures. Tax concessions to private investors include liberal depreciation allowances on plant, machinery and buildings; tax exemptions on new investment made in approved industries; tax exemption for expenditure of a capital nature on scientific research and on contribution or grants made to institutions engaged in scientific research or training; exemption from interest on foreign loans; 5 to 10 per cent rebate in super tax on profits; exemption from inter-corporate tax on the dividend income received by the parent company from any subsidiary company set up in the other province of the country. Tax holiday for two, four and six years—depending on the area in which they are located — for industries set up between April 1959 and 1970. Depreciation allowances on the written-down value of capital assets after the tax holiday period. Tax holiday eligibility extended to a wide range of industries, including those based on indigenous raw materials as well as those engaged in the exploration and extraction of mineral deposits.

Foreign Investors: The following incentives and guarantees are offered to foreign private investors:

— adherence to private enterprise and economic liberalization;
— freedom from nationalization;
— guaranteed repatriation of capital investment, including capital gains;
— unrestricted remittances of current profits;
— flexibility regarding the extent of local participation;
— tax holiday with no distinction between foreign investors and Pakistanis for this purpose;
— liberal depreciation allowances;
— income-tax exemption on salaries of foreign technicians for 3 years;
— facility of family remittances to foreign nationals;
— availability of long-term credit facilities from industrial financing institutions;
— tariff protection to deserving industries;
— guaranteed import of raw materials

and spares, subject to availability of foreign exchange;
- wide export incentive concessions;
- a central organization to deal expeditiously with all foreign investment proposals and to solve day-to-day difficulties faced by foreign-owned enterprises;
- relief from double taxation;
- guarantees to US investors against losses due to possible expropriation and currency inconvertibility under the US Investment Guarantee Programme.

Other measures for the promotion of industries are:

(a) industrial bias in commercial policy;
(b) financial and development institutions;
(c) arrangements for foreign aid and loans;
(d) industrial estates in various areas;
(e) vigorous export promotion drive;
(f) expansion of facilities for research and training.

Various steps are taken from time to time in specific fields to strengthen the over-all economic scheme. President Ayub's directive for the elimination of cartels and monopolies and for the widest possible and equitable distribution of wealth has had its impact on the industrial sector and it has led to measures such as making the "presence" of the public sector felt whereever there was a risk of the emergence of monopolies. Encouragement of newcomers in the field of simple manufacture, and reservation by banks of an increasing percentage of advances for small borrowers has also had its effect. In order to ensure and encourage maximum utilization of installed capacity, the Government has assumed powers for taxing the industries on the basis of production capacity. This instrument is being used in a selective manner. It now applies to sugar, vegetable oil and cement and is being extended to soda ash and cotton textiles. The needs of small and medium industries are answered by soft credits, greater banking facilities, the "People's Credit Scheme" of the National Bank of Pakistan and separate provisions in the Industrial Investment Schedule.

East Pakistan's problem of capital formation, which remains less than the desired level, has been met by measures to stimulate the private sector. The operation of credit institutions has been redesigned and adapted to the special requirements of that province. Industrialists of limited resources are allowed to participate with the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation in the setting up of factories and mills, with prospects of ultimate ownership.

All these efforts have produced the desired results; and whereas the performance of the First Plan was less than satisfactory, the Second Plan overfulfilled its main targets. The GNP increased by 30.4 per cent, as against the target of 24 per cent — equivalent to an annual growth rate of 5.5 per cent. The per capita income rose by 14.8 per cent, against the target of 12 per cent. The share of industry in the GNP rose from 9.3 per cent (1959-60) to 11.5 per cent (1964-65). The index of manufacturing industries (base: 1959-60) rose to 261 in 1967-68 due to increase in the production of practically all industries. Sanctions issued under

the two Industrial Investment Schedules amounted to Rs. 6,590 million, against the total provision of Rs. 4,370 million. This meant an excess of 50 per cent in the fulfilment of the schedules.

This record of achievement has justified the size of the Third Plan which is set at almost double the Second Plan size, namely Rs. 52,000 million. The Plan envisages an industrial investment of Rs. 8,300 million in the private sector and Rs. 3,513 million in the public sector. Emphasis has shifted from consumer goods industries to intermediate and basic capital industries in order to maintain the contribution of the industrial sector to the savings efforts of the economy and to extend the import substitution programme over a much wider front. The Plan's strategy has been reoriented in favour of a fuller utilization of installed capacity, coupled with selective expansion of industries that are geared to the export market and the agricultural sector.

Commercial Policy: There is a marked industrial bias in the Government's commercial policy and foreign exchange is liberally earmarked for the import of industrial raw materials. The policy for January-June 1968 has doubled the allocations for industrial raw materials, freed over 90 per cent of imports from licensing and has adjusted the price of imported raw materials to the level of cash-*cum*-bonus prices. The Export Bonus Scheme and the linking of import licensing with export performance in certain fields give the industrialists more opportunities for developing their production.

Protection: The Tariff Commission considers and recommends protective tariffs or other forms of assistance for the protection of industries. The idea is that the industries concerned should be able to dispense with the necessity of protection within a reasonable period and the cost to the consumer or to the State during the period of assistance should not be excessive. In March 1968, the commission submitted its report on the industries, of which the following have been granted protection: penicillin, water meter, steel and plate glass.

Price Stabilization: There is almost no price control now. The Price Stabilization Board, however, co-ordinates and controls the steps taken in various fields to maintain stability in prices. From time to time, surveys are conducted about the distributive channels of industries and about the impact of various taxes on the prices of essential commodities.

Industrial Estates: Industrial trading estates have been set up at various places with such facilities for industries as roads, railway connections, post and telegraph offices, water and power. Wherever possible, proximity of agricultural raw materials is also ensured. There are two large estates in Karachi and 13 smaller ones in East Pakistan. Another 38, including 16 large estates, are being set up at suitable places in both the provinces. More are being planned.

PIDC: Until 1962, the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation was one central organization. Its object was to promote such industrial enterprise as private industrialists were

either unable or unwilling to undertake. It was meant to supplement, and not to replace, private enterprise. The PIDC was later decentralized to form the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation and the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation and these have concentrated on industries which

— require heavy initial capital investment;
— involve complicated processes requiring high skill or experience;
— rectify concentration of other industries;
— ensure better balance in development.

By 1962, the PIDC had completed 55 projects. After its bifurcation into provincial corporations the East Pakistan Development Corporation has been promoting general industrial development. This has been necessary because of limitations of the private sector in that province. Since 1962, it has invested Rs. 835 million in 30 industrial units in five years, against a 10-year investment of Rs. 833 million by the PIDC. In 1966-67, it had 44 projects in hand which included expansion of the Chittagong Steel Mill, erection of four fertilizer plants, and a machine tool plant. Big projects such as 25 jute mills, of 250 looms each, are part of its programme for the remaining years of the Third Plan.

The West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has, in its turn, completed 49 projects at a cost of Rs. 900 million. It has 19 projects of the value of Rs. 1,006.37 million, now in different stages of implementation. Seven of these are almost complete. It has also submitted to the Government 29 new schemes at an estimated cost of Rs. 2,970 million. Among the heavy industry projects, work on the Pakistan Machine Tool Factory, Landhi, and the Heavy Mechanical Complex at Taxila is already well under way. The schemes for a heavy electrical complex, heavy foundry and forge, the Kalabagh steel mill, high pressure steel pipes, and ammonium sulphate/nitrate fertilizers are ready for implementation.

Of the projects completed, 19 have been transferred to private enterprise. The 30 under WPIDC management have 25,000 employees, an annual production of about Rs. 350 million and an investment return of 8.8 per cent. The estimated annual production value of projects under completion is Rs. 400 million.

Financial Institutions: Financial insituations have contributed greatly to the growth of industry by providing large funds at reasonable rates of interest. These include the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC), the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan (IDBP), West Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (WPSIC) and East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation (EPSIC).

The objectives of the PICIC (founded in 1957) are to:

(a) provide finance to the private sector of industry in the form of long- or medium-term loans in local or foreign currencies or share participation or purchase of debentures;
(b) underwrite any public issues of shares and debentures;
(c) guarantee and counter-guarantee

loans and obligations;
(d) arrange participation in industries of local and external finance from private and institutional investors;
(e) furnish managerial, technical and administrative advice to the private sector of industry or assist the industrialists in procuring such services;
(f) facilitate the creation, issue or conversion of capital in any form and to act as trustee in this respect.

PICIC, thus, provides foreign exchange loans to large-scale industries. Its minimum lending limit is Rs. 1.0 million in foreign currency for East Pakistan, while the corresponding limit for West Pakistan is Rs. 1.5 million. The latter may be reduced for backward areas. From the beginning of its operations in 1958 to early 1968, it sanctioned effective loans amounting to Rs. 1,377.1 million for 592 projects (Rs. 1,318.4 million in foreign currency). It assisted 24 projects through direct participation in their equity to the extent of Rs. 17.8 million and underwrote public share issues for Rs. 62.7 million. It directly arranged finance from abroad for 13 projects to the value of Rs. 279.9 million and arranged 22 joint ventures resulting in the inflow of foreign private capital of Rs. 86 million. Thus the total effective assistance provided or arranged through it up to March 31, 1968, was Rs. 1,823.7 million.

The IDBP (founded in 1961) provides long-and medium-term finance to medium and small-scale industries. The upper limit for its loans is Rs. 2.5 million; the foreign exchange limit has been recently raised from Rs. 1.5 million to Rs. 2 million. There is no lower limit. The total loans advanced by the bank up to March 31, 1968, amount to Rs. 1,557 million (Rs. 1;170 million in foreign currency and Rs. 387 million in local currency). Out of this, Rs. 713 million (or 46 per cent) were sanctioned for East Pakistan. The loans advanced during the first half of the Third Plan period are estimated to be 53 to 55 per cent of the total investment expected to be generated in these years. Out of an investment of Rs. 3,116 million that materialized during the first half of the Third Plan period, the bank-financed units accounted for an investment of Rs. 1,100 million. The bank, thus, financed about 35 per cent of the total investment during this period, including the joint ventures or pay-as-you-earn schemes.

The WPSIC (founded in 1965) and EPSIC (founded in 1957) sponsor, sanction and assure part of the credit risk involved in the financing of small industries in the private sector. Considerable progress has also been made in building up a healthy, competitive, capital market through the National Investment (Unit) Trust (NIT, founded in 1962) and the Investment Corporation of Pakistan (ICP, founded in in 1966). While the NIT endeavours to absorb the savings of the common man for investment in industrial ventures, the ICP channels private savings into new capital issues and helps by underwriting industrial issues. Through its Investor's Scheme, launched in January 1967, ICP runs the first modern investment banking mechanism in Pakistan, providing for operative and for fixed return investment accounts.

Investment Promotion Department: The department is part of the Central

Ministry of Industries and acts as a single, authoritative source of information, advice and assistance for industrial investment. Among other things, it provides the following services:

(a) dissemination of information regarding economic conditions, laws, procedures and specific investment opportunities in the country, advice and guidance to investors;

(b) processing of all applications for the establishment of new industrial concerns, with total or partial foreign investment, through the relevant ministries and departments of the Central and provincial Governments and communication of the final orders of the Government to the parties concerned;

(c) active assistance to foreign and local investors in obtaining import licences, land, building materials, power, water, railway siding, raw materials, technical help or advice or any other facility, which requires the sanction of the Central or provincial Government or any statutory body; any help in the solution of the difficulties faced by the investors.

The department is responsible for regulating the entry of foreign investment in commercial and professional fields and the employment of foreign nationals in commercial, professional and industrial concerns. The organization also looks after the promotion of economic co-operation with friendly countries under the aegis of the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD).

Industrial Investment Schedules: An important function of the Investment Promotion Department is the preparation of industrial investment schedules which provide a guideline to investors and entrepreneurs, both Pakistani and foreign. The schedules indicate a broad field of industries claiming priorities in the development plans, from which the investors can pick and choose. The Third Plan envisages an investment of Rs. 8,300 million in the private sector of industry, which amounts to 300 per cent of the investment programme of the Second Plan. A comprehensive industrial investment schedule, prepared by the Department, lists 200 industries, with an aggregate target of Rs. 10,885 million (Rs. 5,024.5 million for East Pakistan and Rs. 5,860.7 million for West Pakistan). Sanctions issued under these schedules up to March 1968 involve a capital investment of about Rs. 4,245 million — 51 per cent and 39 per cent of the Plan and schedule targets, respectively.

Pay-as-you-earn Scheme (founded in 1962): This provides for the purchase of complete industrial units, their spare parts, raw materials and technical know-how and financing of the repayment out of the proceeds of the goods manufactured or processed by the plant. It is, thus, a credit from those suppliers who are prepared to accept payment in terms of the product of the imported plant. In certain cases, the Government may allow down payment in foreign exchange up to 10 per cent of the total value of the plant, but this amount has to be adjusted against the export earnings. Raw materials and spare parts required for such industries are required to be obtained through export earnings which enjoy Bonus Voucher privileges.

Investment Advisory Centre (IACP, founded in 1963): This is a specialized

organization which makes studies of the areas and sectors in which new private investment is desirable and feasible. It analyses projects of investors and translates them into concrete proposals. These efforts have resulted in a number of industrial sanctions being issued to newcomers in both zones of the country.

Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (founded in 1953): This Council has developed a number of new processes for the optimum utilization of indigenous resources. Of the 97 processes developed by its laboratories, 45 patents have been leased to industrialists for commercial exploitation. Of these, 17 processes have gone into production and 13 others are expected to go into production shortly. These include the production of waterproofing material from jute, waterproofing additive from cement, light weight concrete, Vitamin A concentrate from shark liver, dry distemper, printing ink, insulation board from bagasse, chipboard from wood waste, and synthetic marble. Six processes are ready for commercial exploitation and 16 more will soon be ready for such exploitation.

The Council is now taking up research on fuels, mineral processes, building materials, food technology and leather. During 1967-68, the council developed a large number of processes for industrial use of which a fair number has already been leased. (For details, please refer to the chapter on Scientific Research.)

Central Testing Laboratories (founded in 1951): These laboratories are concerned with the scientific assessment of industrial raw materials, finished products and exportable commodities and provide guidance to Government purchase and inspection departments, indigenous industries and private enterprise. From April to December 1967, the Karachi and Lahore laboratories tested and reported on 2,830 samples received both from public and private sources. The Dacca laboratory can now test about 3,000 samples per annum.

Pakistan Standards Institution (founded in 1958): This Institute prescribes national standards and exercises quality control. Its branch office in Dacca is preparing draft standard specifications on such items as jute, tea, coir, plywood and tea chests. For selected exportable goods it is responsible, under the Certification Marks Ordinance, for enforcing compulsory standardization to ensure that only quality goods are exported. It has so far established 637 national standards and specifications, including 27 during 1967, for various food products, textiles, chemicals, electrical and mechanical goods. It is encouraging voluntary adoption of certification marking of industrial products — besides enforcing it compulsorily in respect of such items as electric fans, induction motors, cement, dry cells and wet batteries.

Patent Office: The Patent Office grants patents for new inventions and registers new industrial designs. From April to December 1967, 991 patent applications and 96 design applications were received, of which 636 patents for new inventions were granted and 40 new designs were registered. On 31st December, 1967, 6,971 patented inventions were in force in Pakistan.

The Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre (PITAC, founded in 1957). This Centre advises industry on improving production methods, introduction of controls, procedures and techniques for reducing ineffectiveness and wastage of materials, improving equipment and machinery utilization, improving the quality of products. It assists industry in designing and manufacturing high precision dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures and gauges of international standard. Its shops at Lahore and Dacca met 708 production orders from private and public sector industries, at an estimated cost of Rs. 485,000. During the period from June 1967 to January 1968, it assisted 95 industrial units in solving manufacturing problems and in the installation and operation of plant and machinery. It also conducted six regular courses and two short-term courses at Dacca and Lahore in which 162 technical personnel participated. The engineers from PIDC Machine Tool Factories in East and West Pakistan were also given a special 24-week training in design and production techniques.

Swedish-Pakistani Institutes of Technology: These institutes have been set up at Karachi, Gujrat and Kaptai as a result of bilateral agreements between the Royal Swedish Government and the Government of Pakistan, established in 1955.

The Karachi institute has six divisions: (i) wood-working and garments, (ii) welding, (iii) electrical, (iv) garments production unit, (v) mechanical and (vi) wood-working production units. Short courses offering 220-hour instruction to craftsmen and small entrepreneurs, already engaged in production, were started in February 1967, and are being continued in 1968. It has 312 students on its roll, and may reach its target of 350 during 1968-69.

The Gujrat institute gives instruction in electrical and mechanical subjects and imparts training in electrical, mechanical, welding, sheet-metal, automobile and foundry work. In 1968-69, electronic and wood-working technologies are likely to be added. At the Kaptai institute, the fifth batch of 56 trainees is now being trained in woodworking, automobile, mechanical and electrical trades. During 1967, 40 diplomas were awarded to 3-year course trainees and 12 certificates to 2-year course trainees.

Other organizations concerned with the promotion of industrial development are the Institute of Personnel Training attached to the Industrial Development Corporations, the Departments of Industrial Planning and Development set up by the Central and provincial Governments in the industrial division of the secretariats, and the Colombo Plan Bureau of Technical Co-operation.

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

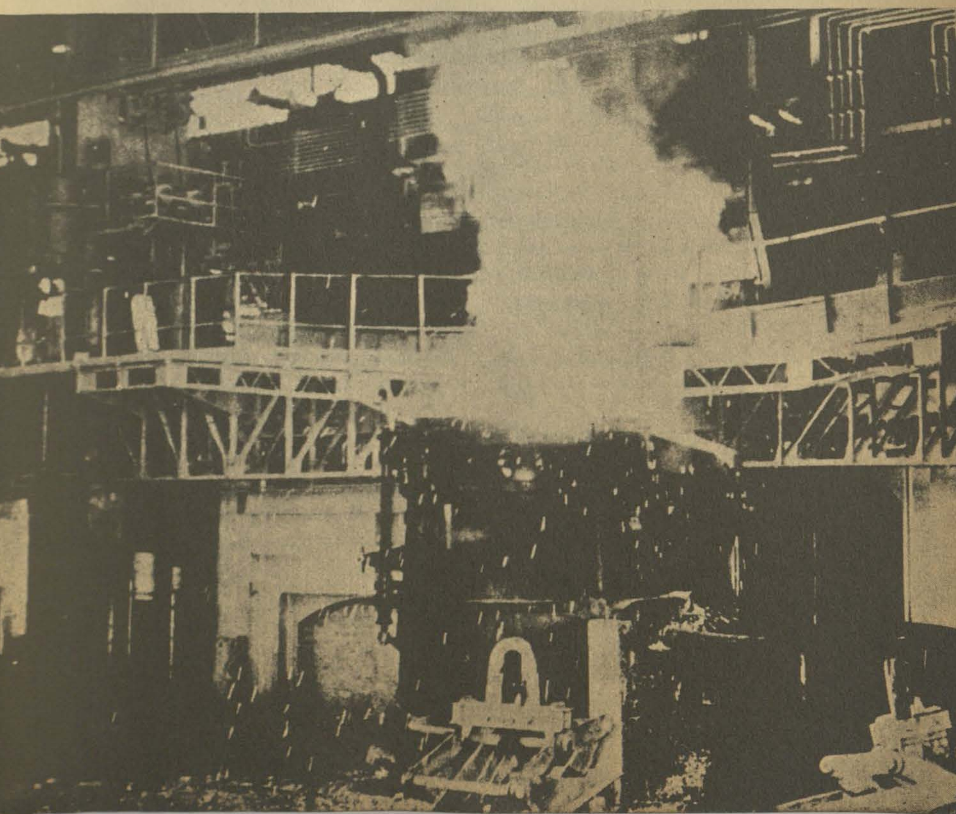
General progress in the industrial sector has been remarkable and the contribution of this sector to the gross national product rose from 5.8 per cent in 1949-50 to 11.5 at the end of the Second Plan period in 1965 and 12.2 per cent in 1968, of which large scale industries accounted for 8.4 per cent. With the base at 100 in 1959-60, the index of industrial production rose to 258.7 in 1967-68. The production of

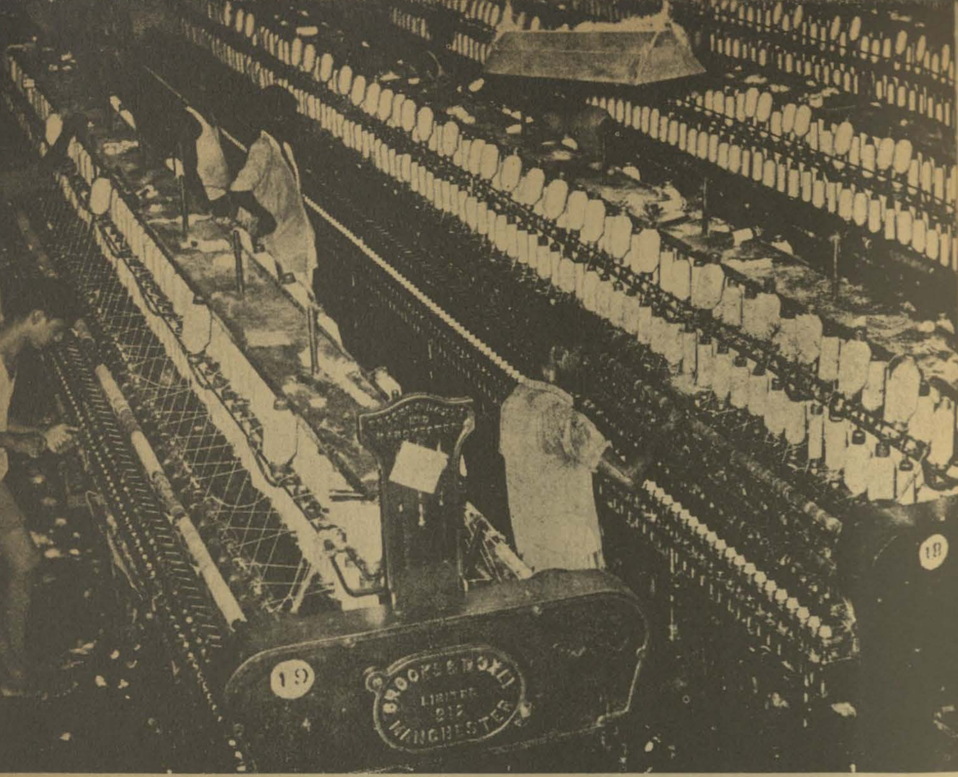
large-scale industries has risen by an estimated 12 per cent in 1967-68, as against 11 per cent in 1966-67. Against the Third Plan target of 14 per cent, the over-all output rose by only 6 per cent in 1965-66, 11 per cent in 1966-67 and by an estimated 10 per cent in 1967-68. The big shortfall in 1965-66 was mainly due to the war in India and a decline in the availability of industrial raw materials..

More liberal availability of raw materials and better utilization of installed capacity are now being ensured to accelerate the rate of growth in the industrial sector from 10 to 11 per cent and of large-scale industry from 11 to 14 per cent. An important event during 1967-68 was the completion of the iron and steel plant at Chittagong, somewhat ahead of schedule. Mineral production has risen from an index (1959-60 base) of 174.5 in 1964-65 to 193.0 in 1966-67, and is estimated to have gone up to 208.4 during 1967-68.

There is also a trend towards diversification in industries. Up to the late fifties there was a heavy concentration on consumer goods which claimed over 60 per cent of all industrial investment. Agricultural processing, food products and textiles attracted great attention.

A steel furnace at the Chittagong Steel Mills.





Spinning section of a textile mill.

In 1958, food, textiles and footwear held their own as favourites, but since then, there has been considerable diversification. Production of fertilizers, paper, newsprint, wire, cable and several chemicals is rising rapidly, and a beginning has been made in steel and other heavy industries. The accent is now on capital goods industries to help import substitution, expand saving for increased investment and improve the balance of trade.

Together with this new emphasis, a dispersal of industries was also achieved. Whereas before 1958, industries were concentrated in Karachi, Lyallpur and Lahore, the tax-holiday concession to undeveloped regions has promoted the development of industries in such areas as Hyderabad, Kotri, Sukkur, Rahimyar Khan, Multan, Sheikhupura, Gujranwala, Nowshera, Mardan and Peshawar, as well as in various parts of East Pakistan.

In West Pakistan, the number of industrial establishments rose from 2,400 in 1957-58 to 5,332 in 1967-68, and the value of their production from Rs. 2,600 million to Rs. 6,940 million.

Cotton Textiles: Pakistan's largest industry, accounting for 30 per cent of the manufacturing sector's contribution to the GNP, furnishes employment for 200,000 persons. The Third Plan provides for increasing the installed capacity from 2.56 million spindles and 37,000 looms in 1964-65 to 4 million spindles and 70,000 looms (1.3 million spindles and 20,000 looms in East Pakistan and 2.7 million spindles and 50,000 looms in West Pakistan) by 1969-70. Sanction has so far been issued for 3.57 million spindles and 46,706 looms; of these, 2.70 million spindles and 37,327 looms had been installed by the end of 1966-67. The production of yarn, which stood at 500.7 million lbs. in 1965-66, increased to 530 million lbs. in 1966-67, compared with the Plan target of 720 million lbs. During 1967-68, the production is likely to go up to 549 million lbs. Exports of yarn and cloth during 1966-67 was of the order of Rs. 282.85 million, compared to 272.20 million in 1964-65. It is expected that a minimum of 3.5 million spindles will be installed by the end of 1970.

Jute Manufactures: The Plan has a production target of 800,000 tons (768,000 tons in East Pakistan and 32,000 tons in West Pakistan) of jute goods by 1970. For this, 25,000 jute looms have to be in full operation, which requires 12,000 additional looms (10,000 in East Pakistan and 2,000 in West Pakistan). The East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has set up six jute mills (250 looms each) during 1965-67 and its work on 10 jute mills is in various stages of implementation. In West Pakistan, construction work on the Jaranwala Jute Mills (500 conventional looms) is in progress. At the present time, 17,929 looms are installed (17,429 looms in East Pakistan and 500 looms in West Pakistan). Another 2,190 looms have been sanctioned but not yet ordered. It is, thus, estimated that the total installed capacity at the end of the Plan period would be at least 24,619 looms, of which 23,500 may be in full operation.

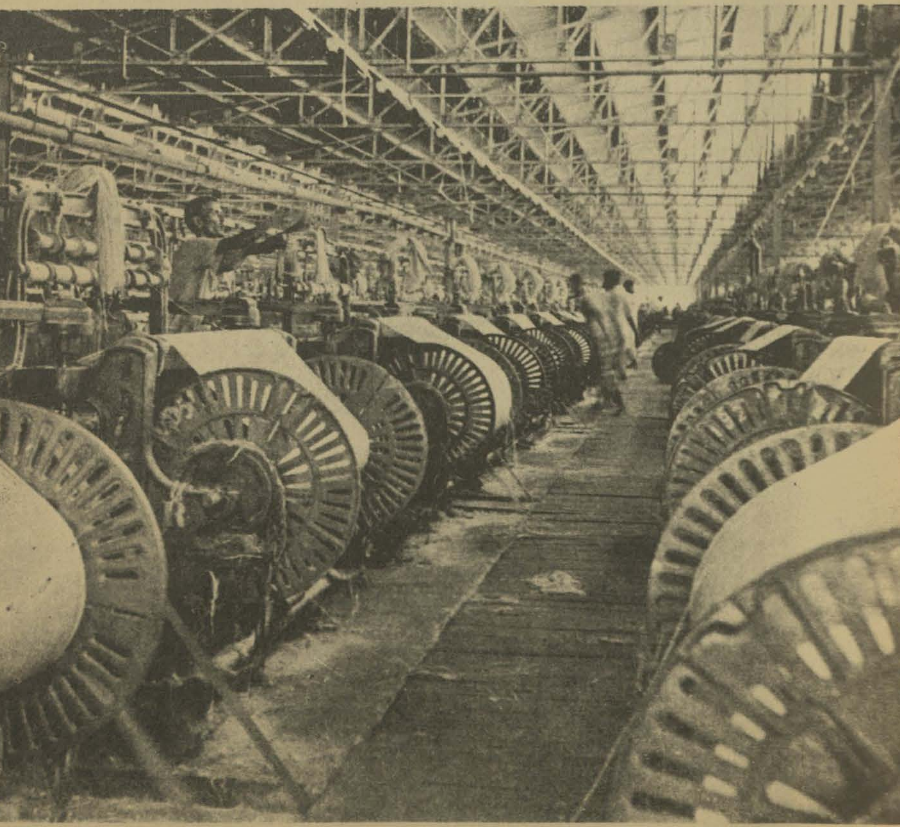
During 1967-68, production of jute goods is likely to go up to 420,000 tons, as against 409,400 tons in 1965-66. Thus about 37 per cent of the jute grown is processed within the country. At the present rate of progress, this is estimated to double to 823,000 tons in 1969-70, as compared with the target of 800,000 tons. The export of jute goods is to increase from Rs. 300.74 million in 1964-65 to Rs. 632.90 million in 1969-70.

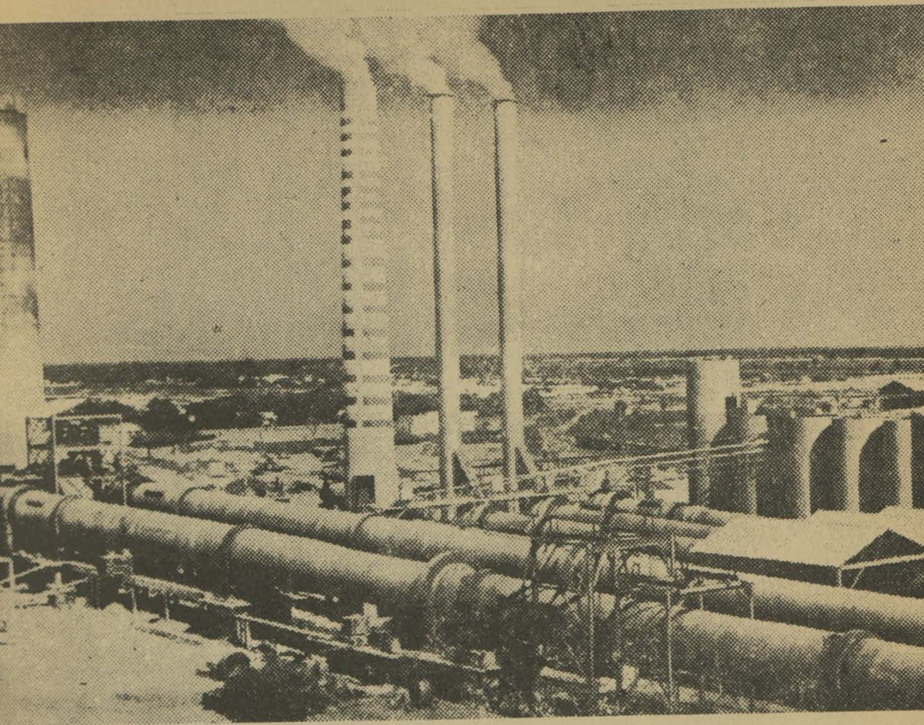
Forest Industries: The forest resources of the country are limited. Industries like timber seasoning and preservation, chip, particle, hardboard and plywood and paper mills are being set up. The capacity for wood processing is 58,100 tons; for plywood 1.5 million sq. ft.; and for tea chests 700,000 in number. Manufacture of cork is now in the planning stage.

In West Pakistan, at Havelian (seasoning and preservation of 1,500,000 cubic feet per year of soft wood) and at Piranwala (seasoning of 40,000 cubic feet of shisham timber per annum) projects are likely to go into commercial production soon. Seven forest development projects—including those for bamboo treating and timber seasoning — are in different stages of execution in East Pakistan.

Paper and Board: The present production capacity of paper mills is 89,000 tons per year. The Karnaphuli Paper Mill produces 33,000 tons; the Khulna Newsprint factory has expanded its capacity to 45,000 tons of newsprint and 10,000 tons of mechanical and tissue paper. The North Bengal Paper Mills, after completion, will produce 16,500 tons of fine paper. The Nowshera hardboard factory has an annual capacity of 7,500 tons and the hardboard factory at Khulna has a capacity of 10,000 tons. The strawboard mill at Rahwali daily produces 30 tons of strawboard and wrapping paper. The production of paper is expected to rise to 106,000 tons in 1967-68. The target is, however, to increase the output of paper and board to 300,000 tons by 1970, against a production of 103,000 tons in 1964-65.

A jute mill at Narayanganj, East Pakistan





The Zeal-Pak Cement Factory at Hyderabad.

Cement: The Plan target is 6 million tons a year. It increased from 1.65 million tons in 1965-66 to 2.08 million tons in 1966-67 and is likely to reach 2.40 million tons in 1967-68. Work on the addition of the 5th and 6th kilns to the Zeal-Pak factory at Hyderabad, raising its capacity from 480,000 to 1,080,000 tons per annum, is in progress; these units are likely to start operation in 1968-69 and 1969-70, respectively. The White Cement Factory at Daudkhel started production during 1967-68 with a capacity of 15,000 tons per annum. The factories at Rohri and Wah are being extended and modernized in order to expand capacity from 90,000 to 270,000 tons and 260,000 to 380,000 tons, respectively. These extensions are expected to be completed by 1970. In East Pakistan, work is proceeding on a clinker grinding plant at Chittagong, with a capacity of 300,000 tons and it should go into production by 1969. The Assam Bengal Cement Factory is being expanded to raise its capacity from 100,000 tons to 250,000 tons.

Leather and Leather Products: The annual production of hides and skins is estimated at 16 million pieces, valued at

Rs. 135 million. Of these, approximately 6 million pieces are tanned within the country and the rest are exported raw. There are now over 80 large and medium-sized tanneries and thousands of small and cottage-scale tanning units. Export earnings from shoes, leather and leather products are likely to reach Rs. 60 million by 1970, as against Rs. 42 million in 1964-65.

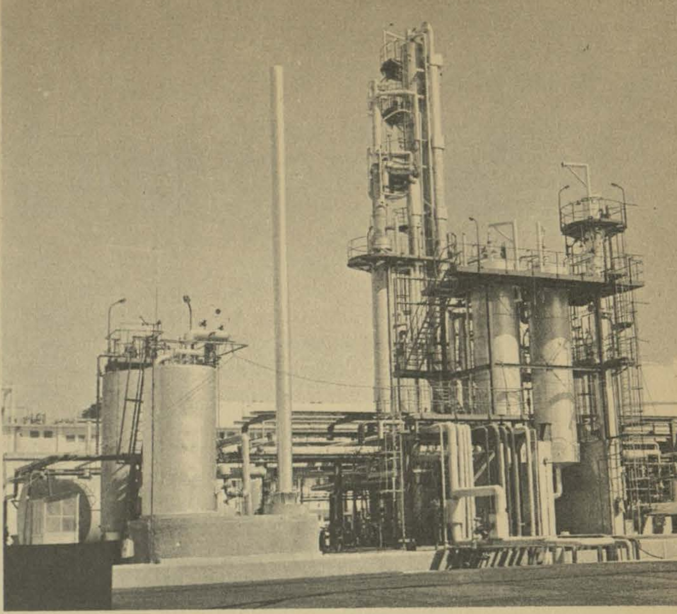
Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals: Two big chemical complexes began operation during 1967. One at Kala Shah Kaku, near Lahore, has four units—producing insecticides, caustic soda, acetate, rayon yarn (capacity: 3,000 tons) and extracting oil from cotton-seed by the 'solvent extraction method'. The other at Chandragona produces 10 tons of rayon and five tons of transparent wrapping paper per day.

The installed capacity for soda ash and caustic soda is 136,000 tons and 65,000 tons, respectively, as against the Third Plan targets of 172,000 tons and 90,000 tons, respectively.

An ambitious programme for the manufacture of tablets, liquid preparation injectibles, santonin and ephedrine has already begun. Some basic products such as liver extracts, ephedrine, penicillin and santonin are being manufactured within the country. A large pharmaceutical project, now under way, will produce anti-malarial drugs, sulphur drugs and anti-histamines. A streptomycin factory at Dacca has been completed, with a capacity of 20 tons a year. A second DDT factory has been completed at Chittagong, with a capacity of 3,000 tons a year, the first having been built by the PIDC during the First Plan period (1955-60).

A polythene bag manufacturing unit, with a production capacity of 5 million bags per annum has been completed at Fenchuganj. A naphtha cracking plant has been sanctioned for Karachi. This will produce about 40,000 tons of ethylene, 20,000 tons of propylene, 13,500 tons of C4 fraction and 32,000 tons of gas. A PVC plant, with a production capacity of 5,000 tons per annum, has recently gone into production and a synthetic rubber factory, with a capacity of about 10,000 to 12,000 tons a year, is likely to be in operation by 1970.

Fertilizers: The production of urea increased from 115,900 tons in 1964-65 to 140,100 tons in 1966-67; that of ammonium sulphate increased from 34,835 tons in 1964-65 to 42,000 tons in 1966-67. The Third Plan targets are: ammonium sulphate — 2.50 million tons; triple super phosphate — 550,000 tons. The Natural Gas Fertilizer Factory at Ghorasal (capacity: 340,000 tons of urea) is likely to go into production by 1970. The first triple superphosphate factory at Chittagong (capacity: 32,000 tons) should be in operation by 1968-69. The second triple superphosphate factory at Chittagong (capacity: 120,000 tons) is scheduled for production by the end of 1969-70. The ammonium sulphate plant at Fenchuganj, Sylhet, (capacity: 12,000 tons) is scheduled for completion by April 1969. The Chemical and Fertilizer Factory at Lyallpur is being expanded from a capacity of 18,000 tons to 54,000 tons of Superphospates. The first extension of the factory at Daudkhel, scheduled for production in 1968-69, will increase its capacity from 50,000 tons to 90,000 tons of ammonium sulphate. A second extension will enable it to produce



A section of the heavy chemicals complex at Kala Shah Kaku.

another 600,000 tons of ammonium sulphate. The Natural Gas Fertilizer Factory, Multan, is also being expanded for an additional capacity of 29,700 tons of ammonium nitrate and 16,500 tons of urea per annum — from an initial capacity of 99,000 tons and 59,000 tons respectively.

A nitrogenous fertilizer factory at Daharki, being built in the private sector, should start production in 1968, with a capacity of 170,000 tons of urea. A triple superphosphate factory at Karachi is scheduled for operation by 1970, with a capacity of 150,000 tons. Permission has also been granted to three private firms to set up urea fertilizer factories (possibly at Shekhupura, Lyallpur, and Mirpur) each with a capacity of 350,000 tons per annum. They are scheduled to go into production by the end of 1970-71.

If this pace of progress is maintained, the country should be able to meet its requirements of fertilizer from domestic resources within the Fourth Plan period (1970-75).

Television Receivers: Permission has been granted for the manufacture and assembly of television sets and parts to nine manufacturers in both the provinces. These firms will make 30 per cent of TV components in the initial stage, rising to 70 per cent within three years.

Sugar: Production has increased from 30,000 tons in 1947 to the present level of over 427,000 tons a year. It is expected to reach 582,000 tons by 1970 from 33 sugar mills.

Nine sugar mills are being set up in East Pakistan and the two existing ones

are being expanded. Work on three of these (including expansion) has been completed. This will raise production capacity from 89,000 tons to 109,000 tons a year. The units under construction, all of which are in the public sector, will add 70,000 tons to the existing capacity. A private mill at Darsana is also being expanded for an additional capacity of 8,000 tons, so that in 1970 the total production capacity in the province will be 187,000 tons.

The West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation is setting up a mill at Bannu, with a capacity of 15,000 tons and a private party has obtained permission for another mill at Chishtian. Expansion and modernization of the existing mills, now underway, will also add another 30,000 tons a year to production capacity. The total production in the province by 1970 should be 395,000 tons.

Fruit and Vegetable Preservation: Over 200 factories — mostly small or cottage scale — have an installed capacity of 15,298 tons. Export earning is at present about Rs. 4 million, as against the Plan target of Rs. 10 million.

Fish Canning and Preservation: Fish export earnings jumped from Rs. 26.4 million in 1958 to Rs. 80 million in 1967-68, and the total catch tonnage has risen from 283,000 to 416,000 during the same period. The main factor in this progress is mechanization. There are over a thousand mechanized boats now, as against only a handful in 1958. There is a fish harbour in Karachi. Another one in Chittagong is expected to start functioning during the latter half of 1969. The Government also proposes to establish an alternate fish port at Korangi Creek, near Karachi, in addition to the proposed construction of fish ports at Sonmiani (near Karachi) and Gwadur in West Pakistan.

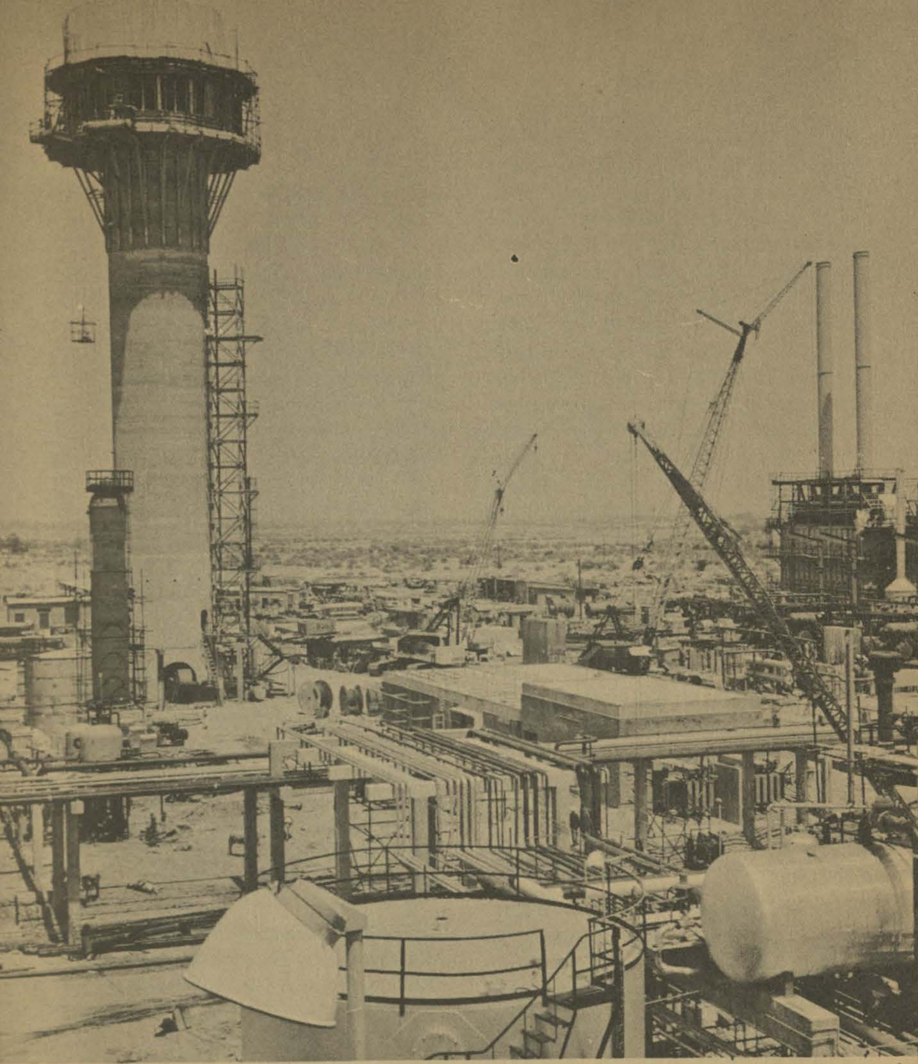
Tobacco: Production is likely to rise from 19,839 million cigarettes in 1964-65 to 40,000 million in 1970.

Surgical and other Instruments: These include hospital and medical instruments, surgical and veterinary instruments and artificial limbs. Third Plan targets envisage an increase of production from the present level of Rs. 10 million to Rs. 40 million and a corresponding increase in export earning from Rs. 2.5 million in 1963-64 to Rs. 25 million in 1969-70.

Sports Goods: Additional capacity for production worth Rs. 17.5 million is being created through small, medium and large units. Anticipated export earnings come to Rs. 30 million in 1970, as against Rs. 19.37 million in 1964-65.

Shipbuilding: The Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works (KSEW) — a public limited company managed by the by the WPIDC — constructs vessels up to 13,000 tons dw. It has built the 12,860-ton dw "Al-Abbas" — the largest ever built in an Asian shipyard outside Japan. It is now building another ocean-going ship for the National Shipping Corporation, and is receiving orders from abroad—as, for instance, four fishing boats for Iran.

Other vessels constructed include oil tankers (one of them of 1,100 tons dw), 1,200 IHP steam tugs, pilot vessels, buoy-lifting vessels, 1,500 BHP harbour tugs, 250-passenger ferries, self-propelled hopper barges, dumb



A urea fertilizer factory near Multan.

barges, twin-screw grab hopper dredgers, self-propelled heave-up boats, and self-propelled hazardous cargo barges and launches.

The Shipyard can undertake all types of repairs, including machinery and under-water repairs. It specializes in hydraulic steel construction. Among the jobs executed are 64 gates for the 4,500 ft. long Gudu Barrage, 60 flap gates and hoists for the Little Feni and Noakhali Khal projects, fabrication and erection of radial gates

for Teesta Barrage. It has designed and built cranes of a span of 58 ft., with a lifting capacity of 20 tons. It now plans to produce 30-ton and 40-ton cranes. It also manufactures all types of sugar mill machinery and a substantial number of galvanized and steel electric transmission and distribution towers. Under licence from Messrs Ruston & Hornsby Limited, Lincoln (England), the Shipyard manufactures and assembles marine diesel engines between 50 and 150 BHP.

The Shipyard is now expanding its facilities; and with the first phase, there will be a second dry dock, another berth, new workshops and additional plant and machinery. In the second phase, the additions will include a third berth, extension of two quay walls, extension of the machine shop, outfitting shop,open craneway and shipbuilding hall. The shipyard will then be able to build three ships of over 12,000 dw in a year. A project for the manufacture of 300 tons of spheroidal graphite cast iron is to be completed in 1968-69.

In East Pakistan, projects for a Dry Dock and Heavy Steel Structure at Chittagong and for a Dry Dock in Narayanganj are under implementation. The former, which is likely to be completed in 1971-72, will have provisions for drydocking facilities for ocean-going vessels (up to 12,000 dw) as well as for the construction of new vessels (up to 6,000 dw).

The Dry Dock at Narayanganj, to be completed soon, will be equipped for facilities of repairs, new construction and drydocking of inland vessels. The existing shipyard at Khulna is equipped for repairs, reconstruction and other engineering works.

Steel Mills: The iron and steel plant at Chittagong started production in February, 1967, with an annual capacity of 150,000 tons, and an expansion to 250,000 tons is likely to be completed by 1969-70. The East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has prepared a scheme for another steel plant in the province, with a capacity of 500,000 tons per annum, based on imported ore.

In West Pakistan, a steel mill based on indigenous iron ore, with a capacity of 1,000,000 tons a year, is proposed to be set up near Kalabagh. The Russian Government has recently agreed to finance and implement the project after the requisite feasibility assessment by them. The Central Cabinet on June 1, 1968, approved the Karachi Steel Mill project, with a capacity of about 480,000 tons per annum, based on imported iron ore. It decided that it should be sponsored by a steel corporation in the public sector.

Engineering Industries: Work on the Machine Tool Factory at Joydevpur (Dacca), with a p.a. production capacity of 12,155 tons, is in progress. Initial production, with imported CKD units, is expected to begin during 1968-69. The Pakistan Diesel Plant at Joydevpur is expected to start initial production by the end of 1968 with a capacity of 3,000 diesel engines required for low-lift irrigation pumps.

An electrical wire and cable manufacturing plant at Chittagong should be completed during 1968-69 with a p.a. capacity of 6,000 tons. In collaboration

with Russian experts, a project report is being prepared for a general electric equipment manufacturing plant, with an annual capacity of 10,000 tons. The EPIDC is also formulating schemes for a brass mill and a jute mill machinery plant for the current Plan.

The Machine Tool Factory at Landhi (near Karachi) has commenced partial production in December 1968. It will produce small to medium size precision machine tools, including milling machines, radial drilling machines and lathes of types not so far produced in Pakistan.

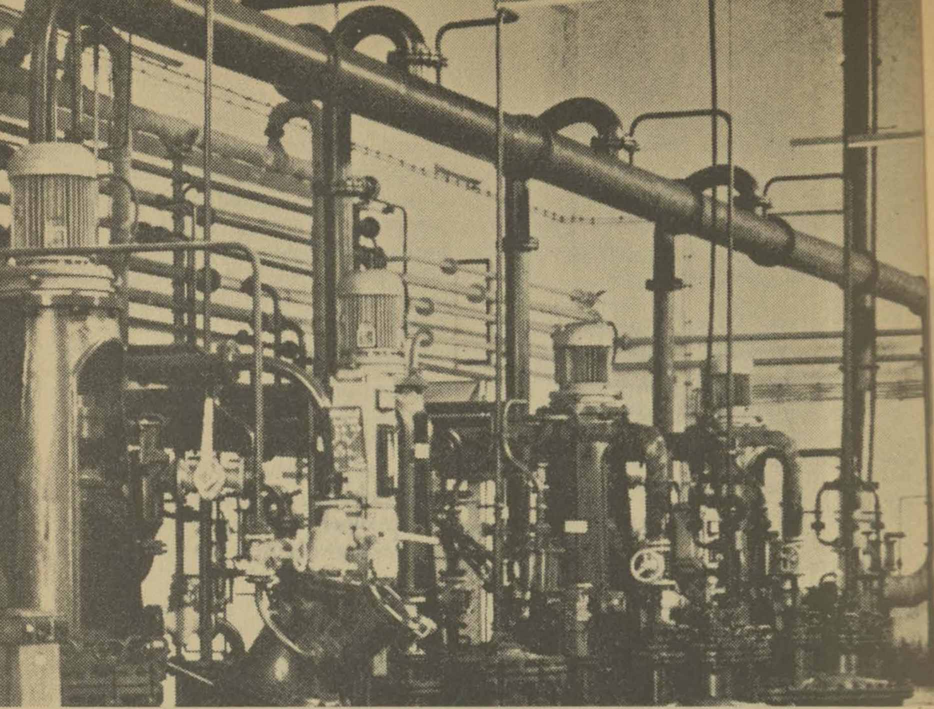
Taxila Complexes: The Heavy Mechanical Complex near Taxila is expected to go into production in 1968-69. Built with a Rs. 60 million Chinese loan, it will have an annual capacity of 14,000 tons and its products will include equipment for cement factories, sugar factories, boilers, cranes, railway materials and road building equipment. The scheme for a Heavy Electrical Complex at the same place (near Taxila) is being actively pursued with Russian assistance. It will produce high-voltage insulators, power generators and other similar heavy equipment. To serve the needs of the two complexes near Taxila, the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has drawn up a project for a central foundry and forge to produce 47,020 tons of castings and forgings yearly. The WPIDC is also working on another plan, in participation with private investors, for the production of 24,000 tons of high-pressure steel pipes per annum.

Small-scale Industries: The range varies from village handicrafts, using no power, to large undertakings, employing modern technology, substantial power, and concentrations of skilled manpower. In rural areas these are closely allied to agriculture and include poultry, bee-keeping, sericulture, rice husking, *gur* making (crude sugar) and other articles. About 3 million agriculturists are employed in these occupations.

Urban area activities include ivory carving, cane work, gold and silver ornaments, sports goods, brass and glass bangles. About 1.8 million persons are engaged in them and in one, the handloom industry, about 400,000 persons are employed.

In East Pakistan, 45 schemes of a promotional nature are expected to be implemented during 1968-69. These provide for small industrial estates, artisan workshops, service facility centres, design centres, sales and display centres, pilot projects and advisory services. Joint ventures for the development of salt industry, brass and bell metal industry and weavers' co-operatives are also under implementation.

West Pakistan will execute 47 schemes during 1968-69 — 41 ongoing and 6 new. Small industrial estates will be set up at Sukkur, Multan, Sargodha, Jhelum, Rahimyar Khan, Hyderabad and Sahiwal in order to help private parties starting small-scale units. Service and common facility centres at Gujranwala, Gujrat, Nazimabad, Karachi, Lahore, Sialkot and Multan are progressing satisfactorily. These are meant to help industries producing cutlery, tools, light engineering units, sports goods, textile and woollen materials, leather and metal goods.



A section of a dyes and chemical factory at Daudkhel, West Pakistan.

Petroleum Products: The capacity of the Pakistan Refinery installation at Karachi has been increased to about 2.50 million tons per annum. The National Oil Refinery, also at Karachi, is expected to increase its capacity from 500,000 tons to 1.78 million tons by 1969-70. The Eastern Refinery at Chittagong, with a capacity of 1.5 million tons of crude petroleum processing, is likely to go into trial production shortly.

Coal Carbonization: The scheme, which has been approved, aims at processing the coal finds at Sor Range and Degari to form high grade briquetting coke and sintering suitable for industrial consumption. The estimated production is 125.5 tons of coke briquetting daily.

Vanaspati Ghee: The vegetable ghee (hydrogenated vegetable cooking medium) industry has made rapid progress. From only two units, with an installed capacity of 9,000 tons per annum at the time of Independence, by 1960 the number had risen to 10 and capacity to 35,000 tons. During the Third Plan period (1965-70), the industry has made further progress. Although two years of the Third Plan period remain, the present sanctioned capacity has risen to 163,000 tons per year in West Pakistan and 28,500 tons in East Pakistan, against the target of 129,000 tons for West Pakistan 25,000 tons for East Pakistan. The quick development of this industry should overcome the occasional scarcity that has been experienced in the past.

TABLE I

A. Revised Quantum Index of Industrial Production

Year (July-June)	Manufacturing	Mining	Industrial Production (manufacturing and mining)
1959-60	100.0	100.0	100.0
1960-61	118.7	114.7	118.5
1961-62	138.8	124.0	138.2
1962-63	159.5	144.7	158.9
1963-64	181.3	160.5	180.4
1964-65	201.7	174.5	200.5
1965-66	214.2	182.3	212.8
1966-67	237.0	193.0	235.1
1967-68(P)	261.0	208.4	258.7

TABLE II

B. Value Index of Industrial Production
(Manufacturing only)

Year (July-June)	
1959-60	100.0
1960-61	123.4
1961-62	139.0
1962-63	161.9
1963-64	184.2
1964-65	210.6
1965-66	234.4
1966-67	274.4
1967-68(P)	302.8

Source: Central Statistical Office.

Note—The necessity of revising the index for manufacturing industries arose because the previous index was based on the production trends of only 32 items which then covered about 75+ of production. With the broadening of the industrial base and the fast increase in the production of some industries, that index no longer remained a barometer of industrial development. The present index is based on the production data of 200 items and gives a coverage of about 94% of production on a country wide basis.

(P) Provisional.

TABLE III

Production of Selected Manufacturing Industries for the years 1954-55 *to* 1967-68

Item	Unit	1954-55	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68 (July-Dec.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Food Manufactures—											
Tea	million lbs.	53.8	50.8	49.9	56.0	53.7	60.8	62.3	61.9	67.0	50.5*p*
Sugar	000 tons	85	144	109	189	274	243	233	456	416*p*	109*p*
Hydrogenated Vegetable Oil	000 tons	13	30	40	54	71	89	95	105	88*p*	45*p*
Sea Salt	000 tons	272	206	223	229	197	193	216	192	360	187*p*
Tobacco Manufactures—											
Cigarettes	million nos.	4,830	9,280	10,880	13,260	14,560	17,760	19,840	26,450	32,050	17,270*p*
Textile Manufactures—											
(i) Cotton yarn	million lbs.	232.0	403.0	408.0	421.0	439.0	502.0	518.0	401.0	531.0	287.0*p*
(ii) Cotton cloth	million yds.	387.0	606.0	683.0	706.0	727.0	741.0	764.0	691.0	739.0	392.0*p*
Silk (art) and Rayon cloth	million sq. yds.	97*av*	14.5	15.4	15.3	18.6	35.4	32.2	35.6	45.5	29.7*p*
Woollen Worsted yarn	million lbs.	3.7*	6.4*	5.1*	5.4*	5.6*	6.4*	5.8*	7.0	NA	NA
Jute goods	000 tons	103*	265*	250*	286*	298	331	289	409	404	242
Rubber Manufactures—											
Tyres and Tubes	million nos.	2.03	3.03	3.51	4.20	4.95	5.20	6.85	4.66	7.01*p*	3.79*p*
Manufacture of Chemical Fertilizers—											
Superphosphates	000 tons	—	.8	8.9	7.9	6.1	6.6	8.0	7.9	4.0	3.8
Ammonium Sulphate	000 tons	—	42.2	46.4	51.8	51.6	49.1	34.9	38.4	42.2	23.0
Urea	000 tons	—	—	—	17.8*p*	100	146	116	132	140	76

Manufacture of Other Chemicals—											
Sulphuric Acid	000 tons	—	13.2*	16.4*	17.3*	16.8	20.2	20.9	24.1	22.4	12
Soda Ash	000 tons	28.5*	26.6*	25.9*	25.4*	32.1	29.0	33.8	31.5	31.4	23.0
Safety Matches—											
(i) 40-60 sticks	million gross boxes.	6.67	9.14	9.66	10.07	10.69	12.57	11.87	13.60	11.16*p*	5.63*p*
Paper and Board											
Paper—											
(i) Printing	000 tons	8.0*	16.4	21.1	22.3	17.1	17.5	22.5	22.9	15.6	9.8
(ii) Writing	000 tons	4.4*	4.3	4.7	7.6	8.6	7.2	9.7	10.9	9.5	5.1
(iii) Packing and Other Paper	000 tons	6.8*	6.4	7.9	7.5	6.5	7.1	8.4	8.0	8.9	4.2
(iv) Newsprint	000 tons	—	12.1*c*	26.6	29.7	31.3	30.4	38.2	33.8	36.5	19.9
Board—											
(i) Straw	000 tons	—	4.5	3.6	5.7	4.9	5.0	5.6	4.8	5.0	2.8
(ii) Paper	000 tons	—	7.8	10.2	10.6	10.3	12.9	15.7	14.4	16.6	7.6
(iii) Chip	000 tons	—	1.4	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2	3.1	4.5	4.6	1.2
Paints and Varnishes	000 cwt.	N.A.	N.A.	83	101	88	108	107	84*p*	94*p*	40*p*
	000 gallons	N.A.	N.A.	576	583	663	973	1226	1227*p*	1195*p*	528*p*
Cement	million tons	0.69	1.03	1.14	1.29	1.44	1.45	1.69	1.65	2.01	0.98

p Provisional.
a Data relate to one month.
b Data relate to two months' total.
c Data relate to eleven months' total.
* Data relate to Calendar year (figures coming under 1954-55 means figures for 1955 Calendar year and so on).
v Unit in hundred thousand yds.

Source: *Pakistan Economic Survey*, 1967-68.

TABLE IV

Trend of Principal Manufacturing Industries During the Third Plan period

	Base Year Produc-tion 1964-65	Third Plan Target 1969-70	Achievement/Production			Percentage realiza-tion of Third Plan Target in 1966-67
			1965-66	1966-67	1967-68 (July-Dec. 1967)	
White Sugar (000 tons)	233	640	456	416	109	65.0
Vegetable *Ghee* (000 tons)	95	140	105	88	45	62.8
Tea (million lbs)	62	74	62	67	51	90.9
Sea Salt (000 tons)	216	400	192	360	187	90.0
Jute Goods (000 tons)	289	920	409	404	242	43.9
Cotton Yarn (million lbs)	518	720	501	531	287	73.7
Cotton Cloth (million yds)	764	—	691	739	392	—
Writing and Printing Paper (000 tons)	32	100	34	25	15	25.0
Newsprint and Mechanical paper (000 tons)	47	100	42	45	24	45.0
Board (000 tons)	24	100	24	26	12	26.0
Nitrogenous Fertilizer (in terms of Ammonium Sulphate) (000 tons)	393	2,500	338**	335**	194**	—
Cement (000 tons)	1,865	6,000	1,650	2,009	980	33.5
Caustic Soda (000 tons)	10	90	11	17	11	18.9
Soda Ash (000 tons)	34	172	32	31	23	18.0
Sulphuric Acid (000 tons)	21	600	24	22	12	4.8
Cycle Rubber Tyres and Tubes (000 nos.)	6,849	—	4,662	7,012	3,786	—

Source: *Pakistan Economic Survey* 1967-68.

*Figures for July-December 1967 are provisional.
**Data for Ammonium Nitrate not available.

Fuels and Minerals

PAKISTAN'S inventory of mineral wealth consists of 20 items, most of which have been recently discovered. Mineral production, which was valued at no more than Rs. 27 million in 1949-50, accounted for Rs. 145 million out of the GNP for 1967-68 of Rs. 48,867 million. Taking 1959-60 as the base year, the index number of production has risen by 108.4 per cent during the last eight years. Apart from the exploitation of the known resources, search goes on for oil and other important minerals. Definite production targets have been set for minerals under the Third Five-Year Plan.

The Natural Resources Division in the Central Government is the policy making authority, under which function the Directorate-General of Geological Survey and the Oil and Gas Development Corporation (OGDC). The actual development of fuel and minerals, with the exception of oil, is the responsibility of the two provincial Governments. The Directorates of Mineral Development in the provinces are concerned with private enterprise, while the Industrial Development Corporations of East and West Pakistan are responsible for the implementation of mineral projects in the public sector. As a matter of policy, the Government has always encouraged private enterprise to participate in mineral development.

The scale of mineral exploration and exploitation has been determined by the availability of resources, especially technical staff. Starting with five geologists in 1947, the geological survey organization now employs about 400 geologists and technicians. Facilities have been provided for courses in geology in the universities and for training abroad. The Central Govern-

ment is setting up a college of Mineral Technology at Quetta to impart education in mining geology, mining engineering, metallurgy and fuel technology. The West Pakistan University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore, has already introduced a four-year B.Sc. course in mining. The Petroleum Institute of Pakistan, sponsored by OGDC, has also made considerable progress since its establishment in July 1963. The mining training institutes, at Quetta in West Pakistan, and at Jamalganj in East Pakistan, are proposed to be set up to train supervisors and technicians for the mining industry.

Oil: The production of oil in the country, which was 450,000 tons in 1967, meets only 12 per cent of the national needs. Oil exploration in Pakistan has a long history behind it. The first well was drilled in 1866 in Kundal in the Punjab and the first oilfield was discovered in the Potwar region in 1915. Subsequently, three more fields were found in the same region — Dhulian (1935), Joya (1944) and Balkassar (1946). The search for oil was intensified after Independence and the first success was the discovery at Chakwal of an extension of the Balkassar oilfield in 1949. The same year oil was made a Central subject and, under the new Petroleum Production Rules, the Government granted prospecting rights over large areas to two foreign-owned companies incorporated in Pakistan—the Attock Oil Company and the Pakistan Oilfields — with the stipulation that in the event of commercial production the Government would receive a royalty and share the profits. In 1950, Pakistan Petroleum Limited (PPL) was launched as a joint venture of the Government and the Burmah Oil Company. PPL discovered the Sui gasfield in 1952, which ranks among the 10 largest gasfields of the world. More companies joined the search for oil in later years — Pak-Stanvac in 1954, Pak-Hunt in 1955, Pak-Shell in 1956, Pak-Sun Oil in 1957, and Pak-Tidewater in 1958. After extensive geological and geophysical surveys, prospecting by these companies led to the discovery of 13 gasfields. A small oilfield was also discovered at Karsal in 1959, and a new oil horizon was located in Dhulian in 1960.

The Government established the Oil and Gas Development Corporation in 1961 to redouble the effort with equipment and experts loaned by the Soviet Union under an agreement. The OGDC discovered gasfields at Sari in West Pakistan and Jaldi in East Pakistan, and struck oil at Kot Sarang and Tut in the Potwar region in early 1968, but these reserves have not yet been evaluated. In all, the oil companies and the OGDC have so far drilled 150 wells. Pakistan Shell Oil Company has carried out marine seismic surveys in the Bay of Bengal and located a few promising structures.

Refineries: The Attock Oil Company's small refinery at Rawalpindi with an annual capacity of 500,000 tons has been in existence for over 45 years, operating on the crude oil produced in the surrounding fields. A second refinery (The Pakistan Refinery), based on imported crude oil, went into operation in 1962 at Karachi. Two years later its production capacity was raised from 1.5 to 2.4 million tons. Another refinery (The National Refinery) was set up in Karachi at a cost of



The oil refinery at Chittagong.

Rs. 100 million in 1966. It has a capacity of 500,000 tons and produces mainly jute batching oil, asphalt, bitumen and lubricating base oil. The capacity is to be increased up to 1.7 million tons by 1971. The fourth refinery at Chittagong, with a capacity of 1.5 million tons a year, went into production in May, 1968.

The consumption, at present about 4 million tons annually, was increasing in 1967, at the rate of 8 per cent, as compared with the world rate of 7.8 per cent. The result is a continually rising import bill.

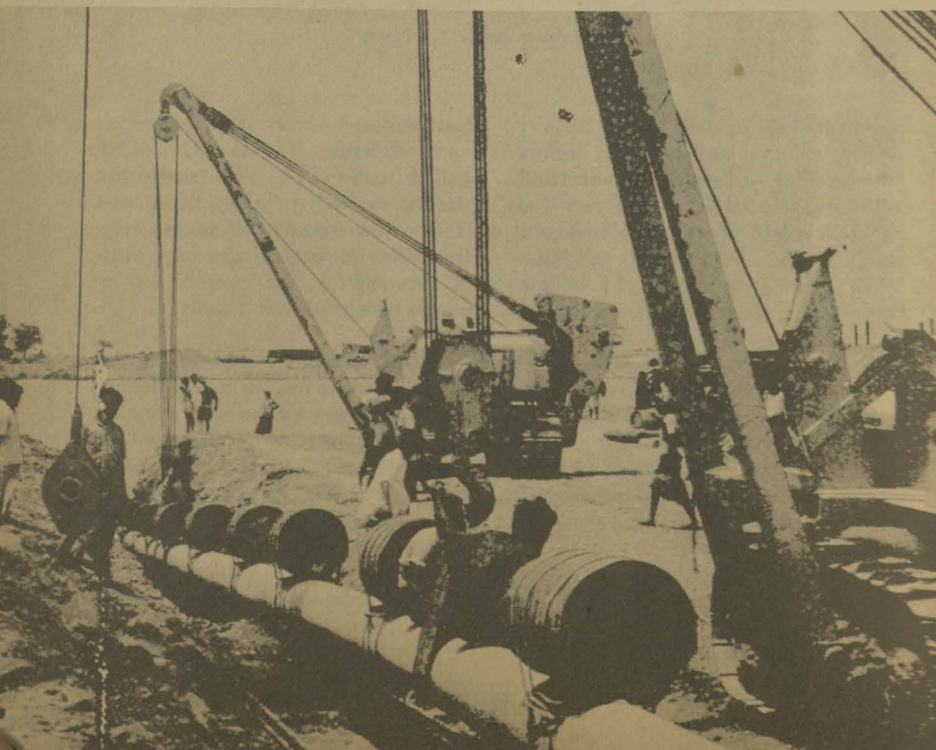
Natural Gas: The 13 gasfields so far proved — 7 in West Pakistan and 6 in East Pakistan — are estimated to contain reserves of over 20,000,000 million cubic feet. The production, starting in 1955 at 1,375 million cubic feet, is now over 82,000 million cubic feet. With the present rate of increase in consumption, the reserves are expected to last for over a century.

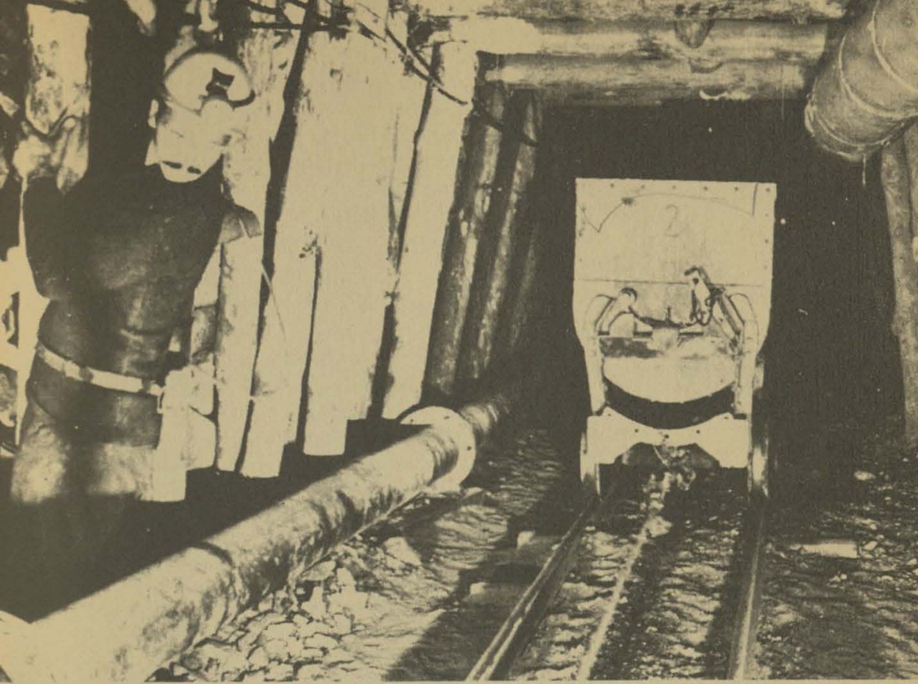
The gas, with high methane content, serves mainly as fuel for the production of cheap power and as feed stock for the manufacture of fertilizers. Total production in 1967 was 82,388 million cubic feet, the consumption break down being: 47 per cent in fertilizer manufacture and 21 per cent in other industries. The Sui gasfield in West Pakistan went into operation in 1955

with the laying of a pipeline to industries in Sukkur, Hyderabad, and Karachi. Transmission lines were extended to Multan in 1958, and now the distribution system has been extended up to Rawalpindi in the north. Of the total Sui Gas produced in 1967, 98 per cent was consumed by industry, and only 2 per cent by domestic and commercial users. The gas is being used as raw material for the production of fertilizer equivalent to 250,000 tons of ammonium sulphate annually at the Multan fertilizer factory. The Mari gasfield is being exploited to produce 173,000 tons of urea annually. The Sylhet gasfield in East Pakistan feeds the Fenchuganj fertilizer factory which has a production capacity of 117,000 tons of urea per annum. The Titas gasfield started supplies to industrial consumers in the Dacca region in April, 1962.

Coal: One of the most important and oldest industries of Pakistan is coal mining. Of the 8 major coal fields in the country, two — Bogra and Sylhet — have been recently discovered. The West Pakistan coal, generally found in lenticular beds, is of lignitic to sub-bituminous type, containing a high percentage of ash and sulphur and generally liable to spontaneous combustion. Its heating values range from 7,000 British thermal units to 12,200 units per pound. The thickness of seams ranges from a few inches to a

Laying a pipeline for Titas natural gas in East Pakistan.





Mechanized tunnel of the Sor-Range coal mines.

few feet. The Bogra coal of East Pakistan is of a better quality of bituminous type. Though located at a depth of 3,660 feet, the seam has a width of 170 feet. The production, far short of the national needs and necessitating imports of the order of Rs. 45 million stood at 709,000 tons in July-December, 1967. About 80 per cent of it is consumed by the brick kiln industry as run-of-the-mine treatment. Other major consumers are the railways, industries and defence services for whom it is especially treated.

The West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has constructed a mile-long haulage tunnel at Makerwal. It has undertaken large-scale development work in Sor Range and Khost-Sharigh, while other fields are being exploited mainly by private companies.

Peat: Surveys have revealed the existence of peat in many areas of East Pakistan at a depth of 5 feet, the reserves are estimated at about 1,000 million tons, the average thickness of the seam being 6 feet. Utilization plans have been prepared.

Iron: The iron ore resources are estimated at over 400 million tons, of which about 394 million tons are of sedimentary type, 3.7 million tons metamorphic, and 15.4 million tons

lateritic. The metallic content is estimated at over 30 per cent. The largest reserves, over 300 million tons, have been located in the Kalabagh-Makerwal region, where the ore contains carbonate, silicate and oxide with an average of 30-35 per cent iron and 15-25 per cent silica. The Hazara reserves of about 60 million tons generally show a high content of alumina, silica, phosphorus and sulphur, while the Langrial ore (about 27 million tons) has an average iron content of 35-40 per cent. The remotely placed Chitral deposits of 3.7 million tons are of the magnetite quality having an iron content of 60 per cent. More laterite reserves of about 15 million tons have been located near Quetta, with an average iron content of 29 per cent. Better quality ore has been discovered near Dalbandin and Chagai. A Rs. 1,400 million scheme has been prepared for the exploitation of the Kalabagh ore, while further investigations are in progress on other reserves.

Salt: Large deposits of excellent rock salt are located in West Pakistan, while favourable conditions exist on the sea coast in both provinces of the country for the extraction of salt by solar evaporation. Salt mining is a Government monopoly, and private companies are allowed only to extract sea-water salt. Total production in July-December, 1967 stood at 116,000 tons.

There are six salt mines and quarries in West Pakistan, including Khewra, the second largest salt mine of the world (reserves 83 million tons). Some mines are said to date back to the ancient times before the invasion of Alexander in 327 B.C. The WPIDC took over the mines in 1962 and effected some major improvements, including electrification, mechanical haulage, construction of roads, workshop, and housing for the miners. Schemes are in hand to employ modern techniques in place of the present costly methods of tunnelling, boring and blasting.

Brine: A brine reserve of about 25 million barrels is being developed at Dhariala in Jhelum district. The brine contains valuable exportable salts, sodium, calcium, magnesium and potassium. A scheme to produce fertilizer from potassium is being implemented.

Gypsum: Extensive deposits of gypsum have been found in several regions of West Pakistan, such as the tribal areas of the north-west, the Salt Range in the Punjab area and Loralai in Baluchistan. It is used in the manufacture of cement and fertilizers and by the cottage industries. A substantial part of the production is exported. Production for July-December, 1967, was 61,000 tons.

Chromite: Found in Hindubagh, Waziristan, Zhob and Kharan, chromite is mostly exported. The production in July-December, 1967, was 19,000 tons.

Marble: Considerably large deposits of marble of different varieties and colours are located in the Peshawar region, Baluchistan and the adjoining Dadu district. Quarrying and processing is being modernized, and some wrought marble is also exported to Italy and Japan.

Limestone: West Pakistan is extremely



Limestone on the move in East Pakistan.

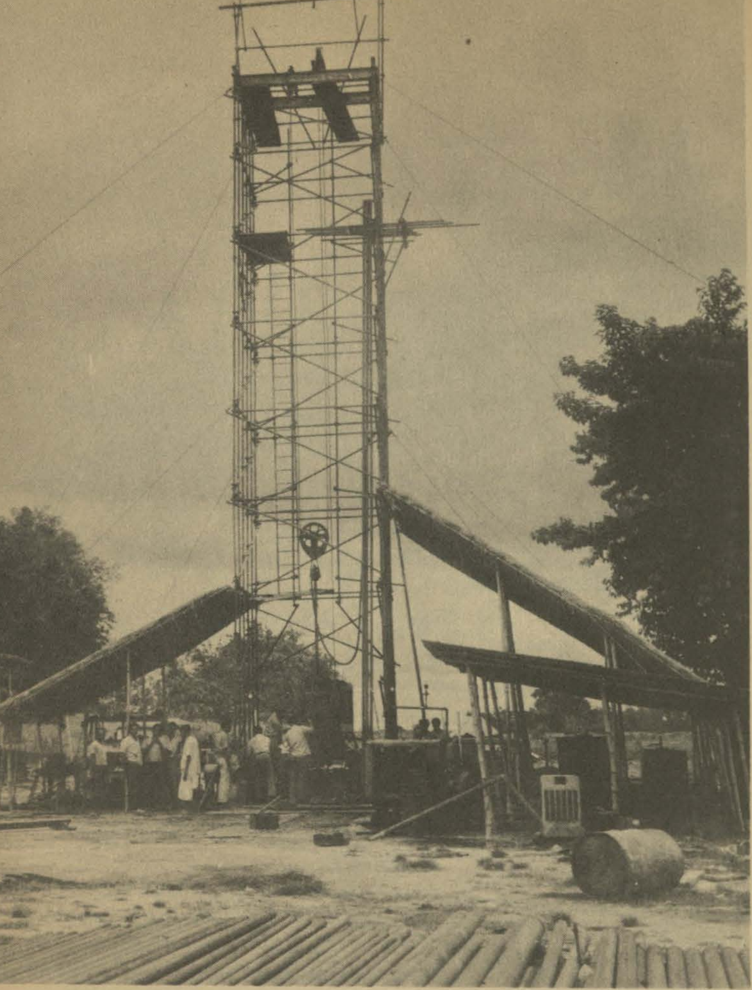
rich in limestone deposits, and recently reserves of about 20 million tons have been discovered in East Pakistan, which are fit to be used not only in cement manufacture but also in soda ash, sugar, paper and steel making. Production in July-December, 1967 was 1,140,000 tons.

White & China Clay: Reserves of about 200,000 tons of white clay have been discovered recently in East Pakistan, the average thickness of beds being 10 feet.

About 300,000 tons of china clay have been found near the south-eastern border of West Pakistan, 5 to 100 feet deep, containing about 58 per cent alumina. China clay is also indicated in the extreme north, the Swat Valley, where further investigations are in progress.

Glass Sand: About 25,000 tons of glass sand are available a few miles north of Karachi. Other deposits in West Pakistan have been located at Ziarat, Unt Palang Range, Dadu, D.I. Khan and Hazara.

Radioactive Minerals: Exploratory work is under way along the beach from Chittagong to the Pak-Burmese border and also in the off-shore islands, where aerial survey has indicated placer concentrations of heavy minerals. The Cox's Bazar reserves are estimated to be 487,000 tons of sand, containing 10 per cent heavy minerals, 163,000 tons containing 29 per cent heavy



Shaft of the Jamalganj coal field at Bogra, East Pakistan.

minerals, and 6,300 tons containing 30 per cent heavy minerals. The average content of magnetite is 5 per cent of the heavy minerals. Uranium mineralization has also been noticed in the sandstone in Dera Ghazi Khan in West Pakistan.

Barytes: The reserves of exposed barytes in Gilgit and Khuzdar are estimated at 1.4 million tons. Another deposit of about 150,000 tons has been discovered in Hazara district. Plans to exploit the mineral are under preparation.

TABLE I *Gasfields, Reserves and Utilization*

Location of Gasfields (with year of discovery)	Estimated Reserves (Million million cubic feet)	Utilization up to December, 1967 (Million million cubic feet)
East Pakistan		
Sylhet (1955)	0.28	0.034
Chattak (1959)	0.02	0.005
Rashidpur (1960)	1.06	—
Kailash Tila (1962)	0.60	—
Titas (1962)	2.25	—
Habibganj (1963)	1.28	—
Jaldi (1964)	Not available	
West Pakistan		
Sui (1952)	6.30	0.406
Zin (1954)	0.10	—
Uch (1955)	2.50	—
Khairpur (1957)	1.00	—
Mari (1957)	3.90	—
Dhulian (1957)	1.70	Production in association with Oil
Mazarani (1958)	0.03	—
Khand Kot (1959)	0.20	—
Sari	Not yet known	

TABLE II *Coal fields and reserves*

Location of coal field	Area	Estimated Reserves (million tons)
Salt Range	100 sq. miles	75
Makerwal	30 „ „	19
Sor Range	20 „ „	25
Khost-Sharigh Range	80 „ „	40
Mach	16 „ „	15
Lakhra	80 „ „	170
Meting-Jhimpir	30 „ „	28
Bogra	not estimated	700
Sylhet	„ „	3

TABLE III *Production of minerals*

Mineral	Unit	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68 (July-Dec)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Antimony	(ton)	165	—	65	56	31	265	115*p*	924	462
2. Aragonite	,,	2,813	6,815	3,079	3,112*a*	10,369	9,171	11,685*p*	5,234	2,617
3. Celestite	,,	1,340	555	356	377	203	432	485*p*	524	264
4. Chromite	(000 tons)	15	23	23	22	8	15	27*p*	38	19
5. Coal	,,	775	855	927	1,139	1,229	237	1,186*p*	1,418	709
6. Dolomite	(ton)	151	195	408	546	728	544	84	515	257
7. Fireclay	(000 tons)	16	15	15	13	33	18	19	20	10
8. Fuller's earth	,,	—	5	9	10	11	10	10*p*	20	10
9. Gypgum	,,	91	94	103	238	172	184	115	122	61
10. Iron ore	(ton)	222	9,225	—	1,700	4,027	11,789	12,139*p*	—	—
11. Limestone	(000 tons)	1,013	1,104	1,200	1,186	1,789	2,005	1,941*p*	2,280	1,140
12. Lead ore	(ton)	20	13	70	58	24	15	—	—	—
13. Magnesite	,,	670	320	—	820	589	622	655	587	293
14. Manganese	,,	169	152	925	807	610	950	—	599	300
15. Rock salt	(000 tons)	168	210	191	220	212	217	289	231	116
16. Silica sand	,,	28	18	15	19	25	27	33*p*	78	39
17. Soapstone	(ton)	2,088	1,353	684	530	822	2,429	2,821*p*	2,870	1,435
18. Barytes	,,	869	250	1,663	5,316	6,451	12,298	8,795	6,058	3,029
19. Crude oil	(Million I.G.)	86	97	107	122	130	132	136	128	64
20. Natural gas	(Million cubic feet)	25,750	31,985	38,790	45,410	54,872	62,896	74,036	79,980	39,990

Source: Central Statistical Office.

— Nil or insignificant.
a From 1962-63 onward figures of aragonite include those of ordinary marble also.
p Provisional.

Water and Power

WATER and power constitute two principal problems of the economic development of Pakistan and they are interlinked in several ways. Because water is capable of being harnessed as a source of power, hydroelectric projects often combine the dual purposes of supplying irrigation water and electricity to the commissioned area. But while the problem of power is confined to the provision of more electricity for industrial, agricultural and domestic purposes, the problem of water is a many-sided one. In East Pakistan, for instance, the problem in one part of the year is controlling the excess water from heavy rain and swollen rivers and, in the other, making enough water available to support another crop.

Yet another aspect of the problem of water is represented by salinity, alkalinity and water-logging which corrode the land. These are grave problems in West Pakistan as well as in some parts of East Pakistan.

The State has assumed responsibility of ensuring the development of power and irrigation facilities from the beginning. It has also sought to fight salinity and waterlogging by drilling tube-wells that also supply irrigation water. In order to protect from flood ravages, it is building embankments. These measures have brought vast new areas under cultivation.

The Second Plan allocated 18.6 per cent of the total expenditure to water and power development; the Third Plan has doubled the amount in the public sector. A Water and Power Development Authority was created for West Pakistan in 1958 and for East Pakistan in 1959. These prepare and execute plans for augmenting and harnessing

the water and power resources in each province. Master plans have been prepared for flood control in East Pakistan and for irrigation, salinity control and land reclamation in West Pakistan. Power development in both zones of the country is being looked after by these agencies.

During the Second Plan, about 2.05 million acres of new land were brought under irrigation (0.22 million acres in East Pakistan and 1.83 million acres in West Pakistan). Another 8.55 million acres (2.25 million acres in East Pakistan and 6.30 million acres in West Pakistan) were improved through better irrigation, drainage and flood control.

East Pakistan: Despite heavy rains, average 76 inches in a year for the whole province, East Pakistan is deficient in water during some months of the year. With a dense population, increasing fast, and with per capita land holding extremely low, the province needs to grow more than one crop in the year to be able to meet its food requirements. This can be done only with the help of modern irrigation projects; many rivers traversing the plains of East Pakistan offer ample opportunity, though there are certain problems to be solved.

Not until recently was anything done in significant measure. The traditional

The main canal of the Ganges Kobadak Project.



method of irrigation was confined to lifting water from wells and streams. It was during the Second Five-Year Plan that East Pakistan constructed its first hydroelectric project and the first organized surface-water irrigation project was started in 1954. Surface-water and under-ground water irrigation received a great impetus after the installation of power pumps.

Large-scale irrigation has also made its debut in East Pakistan. The Ganges Kobadak project in the Kushtia sector and the Teesta Barrage are under execution. These projects when completed by East Pakistan WAPDA will irrigate a total area of more than 170,000 acres.

Ganges Kobadak Project: This is East Pakistan's foremost multipurpose, flood-control, irrigation project aiming at pumping water from the River Ganges to irrigate a total area of 2.58 million acres. Started in 1954, the project was hampered by diverse causes, but gained momentum in the last few years. The first phase is virtually complete providing for the irrigation of 120,000 acres over which the canal system is already in operation. Phase Two is scheduled to be completed by June 1970. Revised estimates place the cost of the project at Rs. 509 million of which nearly Rs. 300 million had been spent by the end of the financial year 1967-68. The work on the project has been divided into three separate units:

(a) Kushtia Unit: Total command area 488,000 acres; net irrigable area 350,000 acres, increased food grain yield expected 360,000 acres. In addition to supplying water for irrigation and protecting the area from floods, the project will provide drainage facilities and afford communication advantages with navigable channels and all-weather roads.

(b) Jessore Unit: It will serve the same purposes as the Kushtia unit and will command a total area of 1,667,000 acres, of which 1,141,000 acres will be thoroughly irrigated.

(c) Khulna Unit: The main purpose of the project is to irrigate and drain the command areas to enable them to produce two crops in the year.

Teesta Barrage: The project envisages a 2,500-foot barrage on the Teesta river near Gaddimari and a system of canals which will command a total area of 1,850,000 acres and irrigate 1,112,000 acres of land in Rangpur, Dinajpur and Bogra districts, at an estimated cost of Rs. 471.8 million. The total expenditure by the end of 1967 was Rs. 23.4 million. The earthen dam on the Buri Teesta has been completed, together with a spillway for impounding headwater for canals to irrigate 33,000 acres.

Ground Water Development: In view of the peculiar terrain and hydrology of East Pakistan, there has to be less emphasis on canal irrigation and big barrage projects. The north-eastern districts of Rangpur. Dinajpur and Rajshahi consist of fairly high uplands which are not affected by floods but also will not take to running canals. They often need supplementary water supply during the monsoon season and the fertile soil can produce two or three crops a year if water is provided during the dry winter months. A scheme for utilizing under-ground water through tube-wells and the perennial streams through the use of low-lift pumps was,



An irrigation canal in East Pakistan.

therefore, drawn up which has yielded very good results, raising crop production several times over. The project covered a total area of 186,800 acres for which it envisaged 380 tube-wells and 860 low-lift pumps. Of these, 362 tube-wells and 526 low-lift pumps had been installed by the end of 1967. The revised estimated cost totalled Rs. 134.6 million of which Rs. 126.8 million had been spent by the end of 1967 and the project may thus be regarded as close to completion.

Flood Control: Recurring floods and tidal bores have had a crippling effect on the economy of East Pakistan. The coastal districts of Chittagong, Khulna, Noakhali and Bakerganj are plagued by tidal inflows from the sea which directly paralyse an area of about 6,000 square miles. Monsoon floods in the three major rivers, namely, Padma (Ganges), Brahmaputra and Meghna affect vast areas in other districts. It has been estimated that, on the average, 1,070 million acre-feet of water flows in through these rivers from catchments outside East Pakistan to inundate the lands of this province, to which is

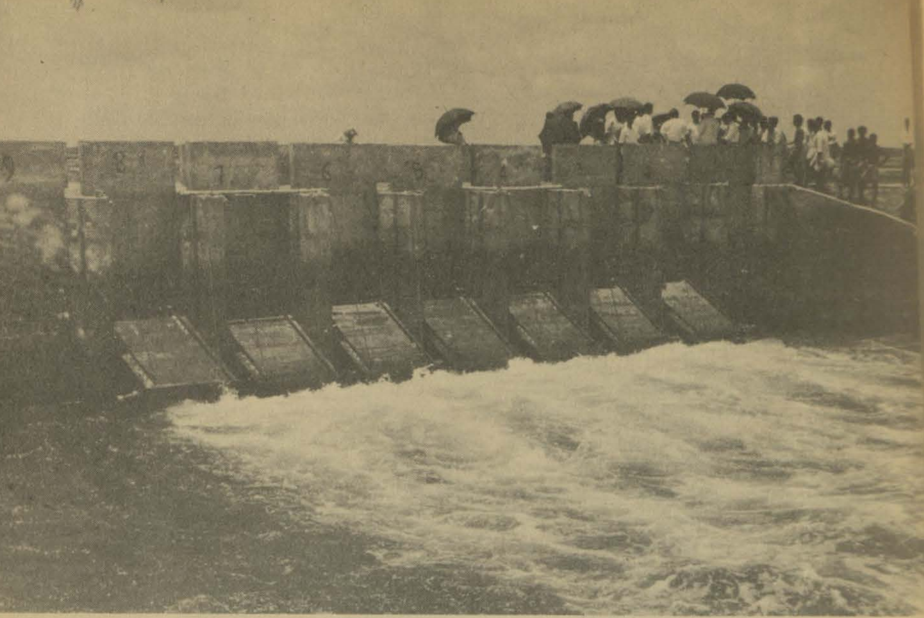
added about 100 million acre-feet of run-off from rainfall inside the province. The total is equivalent to a depth of 34 feet over the whole province. The flooded area totals some 10 million acres each year.

The problem has been studied by successive teams of experts during the past 15 years. A Flood Commission was set up for East Pakistan in 1955, along with a Flood Control Board and Flood Control Organization. A United Nations mission surveyed the entire range of water and power resources and their development prospects in East Pakistan in 1956-57. More recently, further studies of the problem were carried out and, in 1966, the East Pakistan WAPDA prepared a Master Plan for water development in the province which included a flood control plan.

This plan was again reviewed by the Government of East Pakistan and World Bank experts who finally evolved an action plan. The projects broadly aim at setting up embankments along the sea coast and river banks in the affected areas, drainage sluices and irrigation facilities through gravity divisions and pumping arrangements for the protected area. The natural water-

A coastal embankment in East Pakistan.





Sluice gate of a coastal embankment.

ways will be used for flood drainage as well as for irrigation; channel improvements and cut-offs for complementing embankment protection and dredging for combatting channel changes due to flooding of the alluvial soil are also envisaged.

The revised Third Plan estimates increased the allocation for flood control measures from Rs. 460 million to Rs. 780 million. The increase was mainly intended for the upward revision of the Coastal Embankment Project and other East Pakistan estimates in this sector. The Coastal Embankment Project envisages a stretch of 2,600 miles of embankments in the coastal districts, with 750 sluices, 92 polders and strengthening and improvement of existing dykes and embankments to protect a total area of 3.4 million acres. Of this, 1,370 miles of embankment and 340 sluices have been completed to protect 824,000 acres of coastal land, at a cost of Rs. 580 million out of a total allocation of Rs. 991.5 million.

Brahmaputra Embankment: This project seeks to provide protection to 594,000 acres of land from flood ravage in the districts of Pabna, Rangpur and Bogra, with 135 miles of river embankment running from Kaunia along the north-western bank of Jamuna up to the confluence of Harsagar river near Sirajganj town. More than 90 miles of the embankment has been completed, including the resectioning and reconditioning of old embankments. The total cost of the project was estimated at Rs. 63.9 million of which Rs. 49.6 million had been spent by December 1967.

Dacca, Narayanganj, Demra Project: The project aims at providing irrigation, flood protection and pump drainage to about 15,000 acres at a total estimated cost of Rs. 16.4 million, but the total expenditure incurred on it by June 1967 was Rs. 19.2 million. The area located north-east of Dacca city is subjected to heavy inundation during the rainy season. Adequate drainage of flood water will enable it to yield three crops in a year. This will give an estimated increase in paddy and jute production to the extent of more than 20,000 tons annually. The project has very nearly been completed.

Tippera-Chittagong Project: This multi-purpose project covers an area of 1,750 square miles in the districts of Noakhali, Comilla and Chittagong, traversed by the rivers Meghna and Dakatia which overflow during the monsoon season. The area has the sea on one side and is prone to be overrun by the tides. The first phase of the project, known as the Chandpur Scheme, has made considerable progress during the first half of the Third Plan. The scheme seeks to provide flood protection to a gross area of 186,700 acres and irrigation to 150,000 acres. A sum of Rs. 43.44 million has been spent in the Chandpur sector, setting up pumping stations which will provide both irrigation and drainage for flood water.

Little Feni Drainage Project: The project aims at relieving drainage congestion and water-logging in the districts of Comilla and Noakhali over an area of 124,000 acres. The revised estimated cost of the project is Rs. 8,870,000 of which more than Rs. 8,000,000 had been spent by the end of 1967. Work on the diversion of the river has been completed. Drainage and flood prevention schemes and dredging operations in the river Gumti in Comilla district are nearing completion.

In addition to these large projects, a number of small, local projects are in progress at different places. The Works Programme, operated by the Basic Democracies, has provided an impetus to these local works, aiming at increased food production through improved irrigation, flood regulation, drainage, embankments and small dams.

The Third Plan set a target of 4.48 million acres to be provided with irrigation and reclamation facilities in the eastern province, including 1.76 million acres of new lands and 2.72 million acres of old lands already under cultivation. During the first two years of the Plan, roughly an area of 1.20 million acres has been covered which works out to about 25 per cent of the Plan target. Efforts have been concentrated on projects with relatively high benefit ratio so that the net output in terms of productivity will be nearer the target than the area of investment.

Simultaneously with the work on specific projects, systematic surveys and studies have been carried out to provide data for further planning. These include hydrological investigations, feasibility studies and socio-economic surveys of on-going projects.

West Pakistan: Out of a total gross area of 199 million acres, West Pakistan is estimated to have 66 million acres of cultivable land which can be used for farming provided an adequate supply of water is arranged. Out of this,

not more than half is covered by the existing irrigation systems, and some 25 million acres are in fact receiving irrigation water from canals.

At the time of the First Five-Year Plan, assuming an average of three feet of water per acre required for each crop, the additional requirement of water, for extending cultivation to maintain the existing level of consumption of food crops, was estimated at 7.5 million to 9 million acre-feet annually. The problem has been constantly reviewed as cultivation extends and requirements grow. Traditional methods of irrigation, such as wells, tanks, and *karezes* would clearly be unequal to the task and canal irrigation on a very large scale offered the only solution.

During the First and Second Plans, a number of important irrigation projects were taken in hand including such gigantic works as the Ghulam Muhammad Barrage, Warsak Dam, Guddu Barrage, Kurram Garhi Project, Taunsa Barrage, Rawal Dam and Tanda Dam. The Third Plan stipulated a target of 21.59 million acres of land to be provided with irrigation and reclamation facilities, of which 3.98 million acres would be entirely new land brought under the plough for the first time. During the first two years of the Plan steady progress was made toward this goal and irrigation facilities have been provided to 950,000 acres for the first time, while 3.45 million acres have been improved through better irrigation, provision of surface and sub-surface drainage and flood regulation.

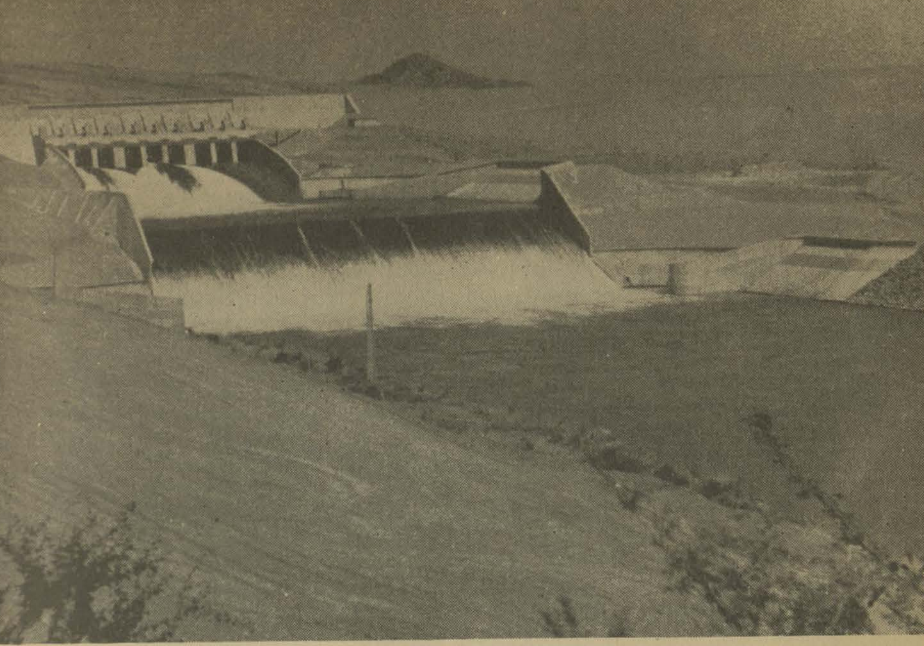
The development of water and power resources of West Pakistan received a tremendous fillip with the setting up of the Water and Power Development Authority in 1958. The West Pakistan WAPDA has since undertaken 48 projects and completed 23 of them. The most important project completed by the Authority in 1967 was the Mangla Dam which is dealt with separately in the section on Indus Basin Replacement Works. Other projects in the water sector pursued during the year 1967-68 are detailed below:

Tanda Dam: Situated near Kohat in the north-western belt, the Tanda Dam, 116 feet high with a top length of 2,200 feet, has been completed by the WAPDA at a cost of Rs. 66.8 million. Water was successfully diverted to the dam on 30th June 1966 and since then other works have also been completed. The project provides a gross reservoir capacity of 78,400 acre-feet and a live storage capacity of 54,000 acre-feet to irrigate an area of 32,000 acres.

Gomal Dam: Preliminary work is proceeding on the Gomal Dam multipurpose project in the tribal area of South Waziristan on the Gomal river at Khajuri Katch. It will provide irrigation facility for an area of 115,000 acres in Dera Ismail Khan district. The estimated cost of the project will be Rs.383 million and it is expected to be taken up during Fourth Plan.

The dam will have firm power-generating capacity of 83,000 kw and a peak of 127,000 kw. It will also serve to check erosion and salinity.

Khanpur Dam: The project will consist of a 141 feet high, 1,380 feet long dam



A view of the Mangla Dam.

across the river Haro in Hazara district with reservoir of 64,000 acre-feet and an irrigation potential of 113,000 crop-acres. The revised estimate of cost is Rs. 107.2 million. The scheme is nearing completion and will come into commission by the end of 1968.

Karachi Irrigation Project: The project envisages the construction of a 146 feet high earth-filled dam across the Hub river near Karachi. The dam will have a span of 22,900 feet and will have potential of 84,000 crop-acres. The cost is estimated at Rs. 88.6 million. Preliminary works have been completed and work on the main dam is in progress.

INDUS BASIN WORKS

The Indus Basin Project, consequential to the Indus Water Treaty of 1960, is being administered by WAPDA as agent to the Government of Pakistan. It includes two dams, Mangla on the Jhelum and Tarbela on the Indus, with inter-river link canals about 700 miles in length, 46 river-diversion structures including one gated siphon, remodelling of three existing link canals, two existing head works and several canal systems served by the new connections.

Mangla Dam: The construction of Mangla Dam was completed during 1967-68, almost one year ahead of schedule. The reservoir was successfully filled in two phases up to the maximum conservation level and two turbo-alternator sets began providing 200,000 kw of power to the national electric grid. The completed works of the Indus Basin Project, namely, Mangla Dam, Trimmu-Sidhnai-Mailsi, Mailsi-Bhawal and Qadirabad-Balloki link canals, Sidhnai Barrage, Qadirabad Barrage

and Mailsi Siphon and Remodelling Works were inaugurated by the President of Pakistan on 23rd November, 1967.

The Mangla Dam is a multipurpose project designed to conserve and control flood waters of the Jhelum for the purpose of replacement as envisaged in the Indus Basin Treaty. It is a key project of the entire settlement. The gross storable capacity of the reservoir, which is equal in area to the island of Malta is 5.55 million acre-feet. It will also generate one million kw of energy which may be raised in time to 3 million kw.

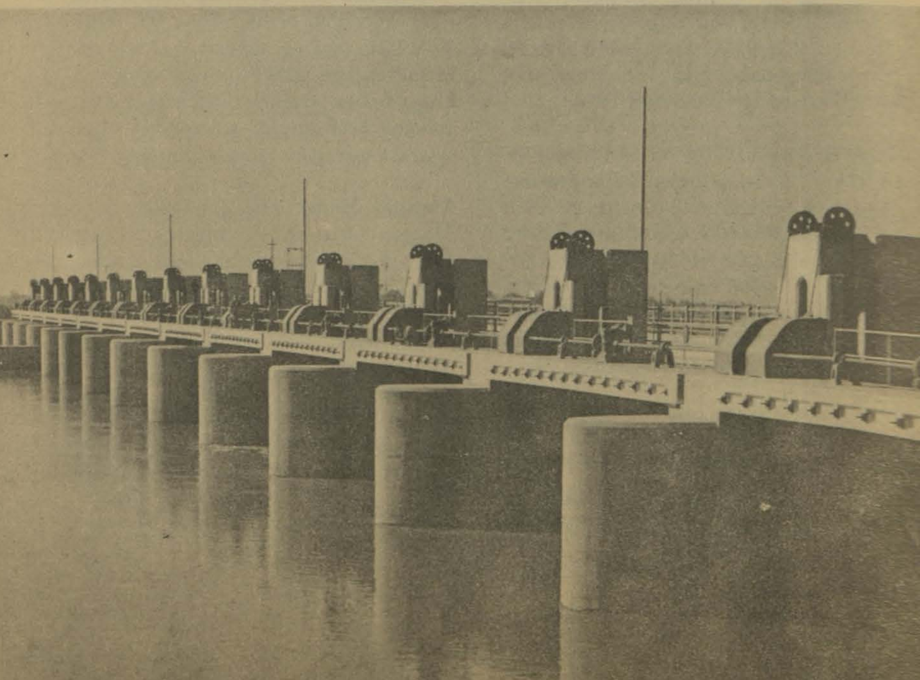
The main dam is a rolled earth-filled embankment with a crest length of approximately 11,000 feet. Its height above the river is 380 feet and it is considered one of the largest earth-filled dams in the world.

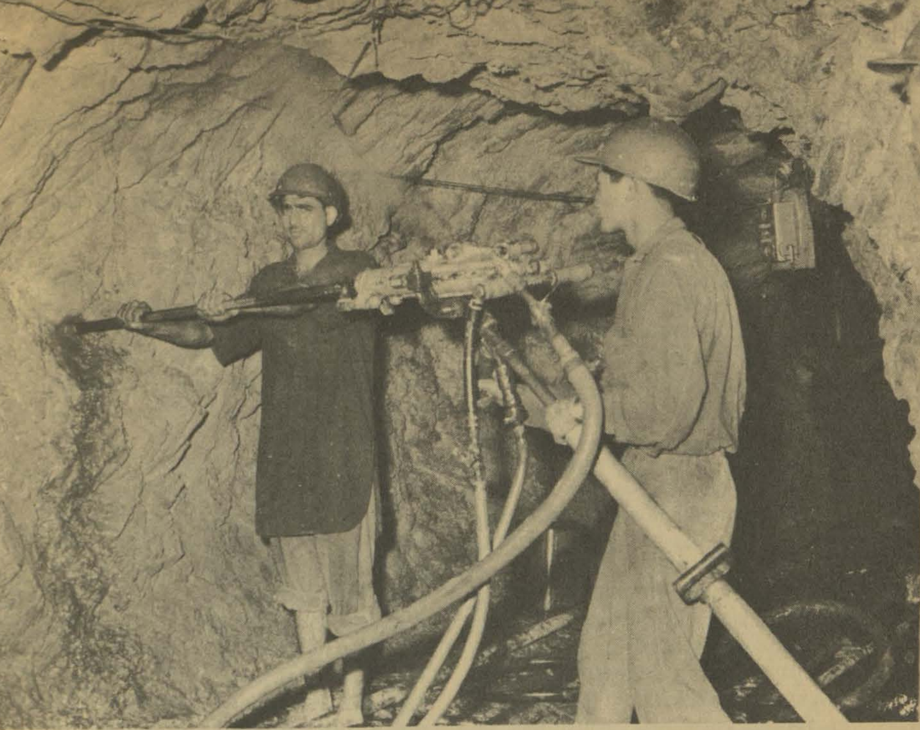
The treaty provided for a live storage of 4.75 million acre-feet with the dam running two miles in length across the river at Mangla. To contain the reservoir it was necessary to build a second dam, Sukiam, 3.5 miles long and with a maximum height of 80 feet and a third dam, Jaridam, 3 miles long and 34 feet in height to close a gap in the rim about 16 miles east of Mangla. Thus, out of a total length of 250 miles of the reservoir link, 8.5 miles are formed by dams.

The life of the Mangla Dam reservoir has been estimated at about 125 years.

The Mangla Dam and seven other projects have been completed at a total

The Mailisi Syphon in Multan.





A tunnel being dug as part of the investigation work at Tarbela.

cost of Rs. 5,000 million contributed by the World Bank, United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and West Germany. India is paying Rs. 800 million over a period of 10 years by way of compensation. The cost of the Mangla Dam alone amounts to Rs. 3,350 million.

Tarbela Dam: The Tarbela Dam project envisages the construction of a storage reservoir on the Indus river about 32 miles above Attock. The reservoir to be created by the 485-foot high and 9,000-foot long dam will extend nearly 50 miles up-stream with a storage capacity of 11.1 million acre-feet, of which 9.3 million acre-feet will be available for irrigation and power development. This is almost twice as much as the capacity of the Mangla reservoir.

The reservoir will conserve 11.1 million feet of Indus waters during the summer when the river has surplus flows which otherwise run into the sea. The stored water will be released during the winter for the irrigation of crops when the river flows are scarce, specially during the critical periods of sowing and ripening.

Tarbela Dam will also provide hydroelectric power, the ultimate potential of which will be 2.1 million kw,

produced through 12 generating units with a capacity of 175,000 kilowatts each. The power units will be phased as demand increases. Initially, four power units will be installed.

The project involves a total expenditure of US $ 900 million of which some $ 500 million will be required in foreign exchange. Between $ 300 to $ 320 million are available from the present Indus Basin Fund and $ 50 million have been granted by the International Development Association. Since the Tarbela Dam has been found technically feasible and economically productive by the World Bank teams, which visited Pakistan in November 1966 and April 1967, it was decided that the financing of the project would be done by the Consortium countries. It is expected that they will make available about $ 100 million in foreign exchange, which will be needed not earlier than 1972.

The construction of Tarbela Dam started in 1968. All the preliminary work was completed by the end of June 1968, including a bridge over the Indus river, a railway track and a road from Lawrencepur to the dam site. According to the programme, the dam reservoir will be completed by 1976 and the remaining works will be completed by 1977. A French-Italian consortium has been entrusted with the work.

Land Reclamation: The original allocation for this sub-sector in the Third Plan was Rs. 1,561 million which was later reduced to Rs. 1,133 million, the reduction being mainly in West Pakistan WAPDA's public tube-wells programme. This did not, however, affect the total water yield of the programme as electrification of the wells was speeded up to compensate for the reduction in the number of wells. As against 12,000 tube-wells originally contemplated, the Plan target now stands at 9,018 tube-wells during the Plan period. Against this target, 4,934 wells have been drilled, 3,632 completed and 1,470 electrified under WAPDA's several Salinity Control and Reclamation Projects (SCARP).

Alongside of these projects, the Irrigation Department has completed a number of small, local drainage schemes, remodelled existing drains and constructed new major drains under the Sukhrawa Drainage System, Pandoki Drainage System, Jaranwala Drainage System, Satiana-Samundari Drainage System, and Chakbandi Drainage System. About 871 miles of main drains were excavated during the two-year period under the Kotri Barrage Surface Drainage Scheme by the Agricultural Development Corporation.

Chaj Doab Scheme: This scheme aims at reclaiming 2.27 million acres of saline land between the Chenab and Jhelum rivers in the districts of Jhang, Sargodha and Gujrat. This will be accomplished by installing 2,500 tube-wells in the area, excavating 450 miles of new drainage channels and remodelling of 300 miles of those existing. The total estimated cost of the entire project is Rs. 300 million. Installation of 301 tube-wells has been completed and they are under operation. Of the remainder, 884 tube-wells fall under the Upper Jhelum Scheme, 213 in the Khadir Scheme and 1,100 in the Lower Jhelum Scheme. The last-named have been completed and electrification is

in progress after which they will be put into operation. All the 884 tube-wells in the Upper Jhelum Scheme have been drilled and 250 electrified. As many as 139 tube-wells have been handed over to the Irrigation Department. As for the Lower Jhelum Scheme, a loan agreement for this project has been signed with US AID. The execution of the project will be taken in hand as soon as the funds are released.

Lower Thal: Under this scheme, 1,550 tube-wells were to be installed and 150 miles of drainage channels constructed in the Rangpur and Muzaffargarh canal zone, covering a total area of 1.28 million acres and the estimated cost of the project is Rs. 224.4 million. Work on three units of the projects, comprising 542 tube-wells in the Alipur unit, 523 tube-wells in the Kot Adu unit and 572 tube-wells in the Rangpur unit, is in progress. By December 1967, about 70 miles of drainage channels had been dug and work was proceeding on the rest.

Upper Rechna: Spread over 1.33 million acres in Sheikhupura, Sialkot and Gujranwala districts, the project consists of 1,942 tube-wells to be financed with US and Yugoslav aid. Work on the project was scheduled to start in the later part of 1968.

Khairpur Project: All the tube-wells contemplated in this project had been drilled by the end of 1966. The main drainage channels and branch channels have also been largely completed. Electrification of the tube-wells is now in hand. The project covers an area of 318,000 acres and is estimated to cost about Rs. 152.8 million.

Larkana-Shikarpur Scheme: The scheme provides for excavation of 126.5 miles of new drains covering an area of 578,000 acres in the districts of Larkana, Shikarpur and Sukkur on the west bank of the Indus. The approved cost of the project is Rs. 22.8 million. Construction of the drains is proceeding.

Private Sector: The reduced allocation for public sector tube-well projects in the Third Plan was partly balanced by the rapid growth of the private sector in this field. The Plan stipulated this sector's contribution to tube-well irrigation at about 27 per cent of the additional water supply. A total of 34,000 tube-wells were in operation at the outset of the Plan. During the first two years, 12,000 private tube-wells were added to this number and by the end of 1968, another 8,000 were expected to be in operation in the private sector.

Besides, considerable water development work is being done by the Irrigation Department of the Provincial Government in West Pakistan. They have undertaken a fairly large number of small projects, many of which have been completed. Similarly, the West Pakistan Agricultural Development Corporation is playing a significant role in this field.

A mention must also be made of an important activity. It is the collection of hydrological data and building up of a proper statistical base for the preparation of future programmes. Provincial agencies are doing a remarkable job in this field.



The Sidhirganj Power House in Dacca.

POWER

East Pakistan: In view of the flat topography of East Pakistan, emphasis had to be laid in the Third Plan in power sub-sector on thermal generating capacity. At the end of the Second Five-Year Plan, the total generating capacity in East Pakistan amounted to 302 mw (202 mw in public utilities and 100 mw in captive industrial capacity). This was to be raised to 809 mw by the end of the Third Plan, at a cost of Rs. 1,550 million, including a foreign exchange component of 845.9 million. Of the total allocation, Rs. 817 million were earmarked for new projects.

By the end of 1967, the generating capacity in public utilities had risen to 237 mw and was due to reach 304 mw by June 1968. Specific projects undertaken for this purpose include 110 mw Ghorasal Thermal Power Station, 60 mw Chittagong Thermal Power Station, 60 mw Khulna Thermal Power Station, Improvement and Augmentation of Power Supply Scheme under the Crash Programme (100 mw) and Emergency Power Generation Project (37 mw).

Under the last-named, two gas turbine sets had been installed and two more were expected to be installed during 1968. Under the Improvement and Augmentation Scheme, four generating sets to be installed in Sylhet district were to go into operation during the present year. Work has also

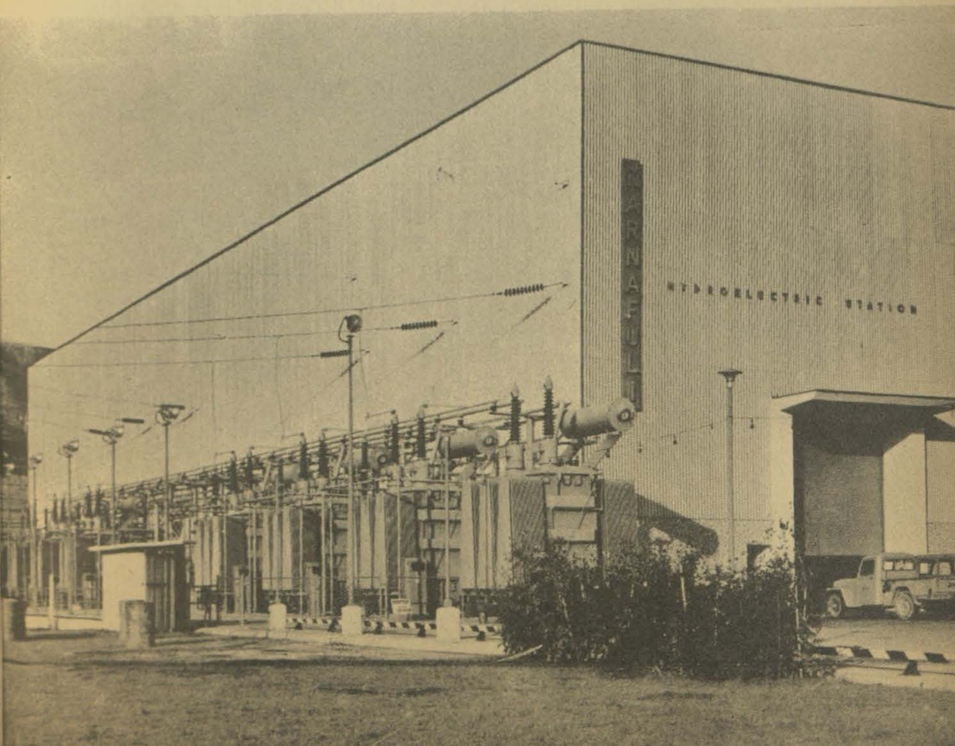
been taken in hand on the Ghorasal Thermal Station.

In addition to these new units, work is also in progress on three on-going projects from the Second Plan, namely, the 50 mw Karnaphuli Third Unit, the 120 mw Ashuganj Power Station and the 50 mw Sidhirganj Thermal Plant.

Transmission: On the transmission side, the total length of transmission and distribution lines is expected to increase from 2,300 miles at the end of the Second Plan to 4,967 miles in 1967-68. The number of consumers will rise from 104,000 to 175,000. A total of 559 new stations, including villages and small towns are estimated to have been electrified. More specifically, the Goalpara-Bheramara-Ishurdi 132 kv transmission line has been completed except for the Harding Bridge Section, The Saidpur-Thakurgaon 132 kv line has been completed, while the construction work on the 154-mile Sidhirganj-Sylhet line is progressing well. Survey work on the Madanhat-Dohazari 132 kv line has been completed and that of the Serajganj-Saidpur line is in progress. For the East-West Interconnector line (230 kv) consultants have been appointed with financial assistance from the Canadian Government.

Secondary Transmission: Construction work on the 66 kv and 33 kv lines for Chittagong and Dacca under the Power Distribution Project is in progress.

The power house of the Karnaphuli multipurpose project.



Construction work on the Ullon, Sidhirganj, Pahartali, Halishabar, Kalurghat sub-stations as well as the New City Main is also proceeding. Preliminary work on the Comilla-Chandpur and Feni-Choumuhani 66 kv lines has been taken in hand. The distribution system in the towns of Khulna and Kushtia is being renovated and improved. Stringing of the Ishurdi-Pabna-Serajganj lines has been completed up to 32 miles and tower erection on the Ishurdi-Sardah-Rajshahi lines has been completed up to a span of 36 miles.

A total of 578 miles of 33 kv lines had been completed by December 1967 and another 285 miles were in different stages of progress.

West Pakistan: In West Pakistan, the Third Plan aims at raising the installed capacity in the province from the existing 1,135 mw to 2,200 mw and annual power generation from 3,661 mkwh (3,231 units in public utilities plus an estimated 430 units in captive industry capacity) to 7,450 mkwh (7,050 units in public utilities and 400 units in captive capacity) with a corresponding increase in per capita generation from 70 units to 140 units. The Plan provided for an increase in the total mileage of transmission lines from 13,500 to 25,000 circuit-miles. Greater emphasis was placed on rehabilitation and improvement of the distribution system. Accordingly, out of a total allocation of Rs. 1,925.75 million for the power sector, Rs. 920 million was earmarked for this purpose.

The distribution covers renovation of existing distribution lines, construction of new 11 kv and low tension lines, construction of new grid stations and extension of those existing. The scheme also provides for the installation of capacitors and line voltage regulators to stabilize voltage and improve the quality of service to consumers. After launching the Plan, it was decided to merge the village electrification programme with the distribution of power and tube-well electrification schemes in order to make the best use of the additional mileage of distribution mains to be laid and to economize on available resources. Under the new arrangement, only those villages will be electrified which are close to the tube-wells and the original Third Plan target to electrify 4,000 villages has been curtailed to 1,000 only. The original Plan target for tube-well electrification (25,000 tube-wells) has, however, been kept intact.

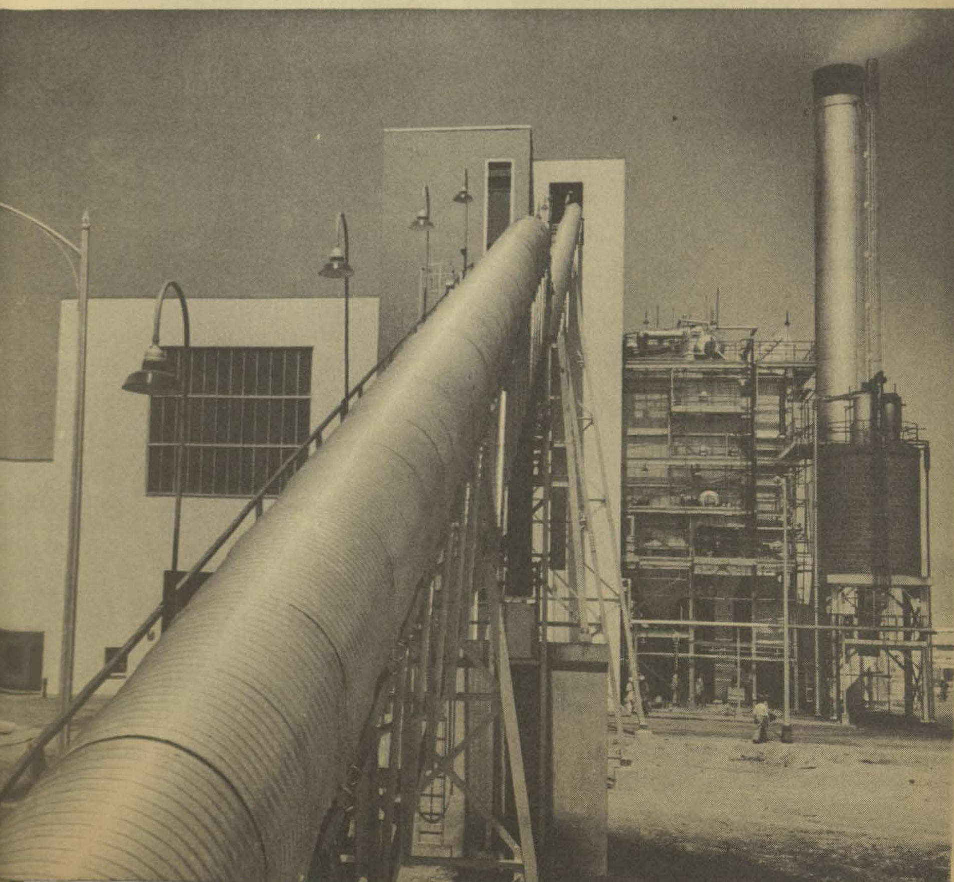
Of the additional generating capacity which will become available under the current Plan, 600 mw (45 per cent) will be hydel, all from the Mangla Dam hydroelectric station, 300 mw of this capacity is being provided under the Indus Basin Development Fund outside the Plan allocation, 600 mw of the capacity will be thermal (45 per cent) and the balance 10 per cent will be nuclear. The additional thermal capacity will become available on the completion of the Guddu Power Station (first stage) based on Mari Gas (200 mw), Lyallpur (130 mw), Lahore Gas turbine (88.5 mw) extension to Karachi 'C', Hyderabad, Sukkur and Quetta stations 125, 23, 25 and 7.5 mw, respectively, all based on Sui Gas.

Leaving aside the atomic energy and gas power (treated elsewhere) the exe-

cution of this programme was entrusted to WAPDA which has, since its inception in 1958-59, undertaken 26 power projects involving a total outlay of Rs. 3,704.6 million and completed 15 of them at a total cost of Rs. 1,553.2 million. The Third Plan allocation for WAPDA's power project was Rs. 1,626 million, excluding tube-well electrification.

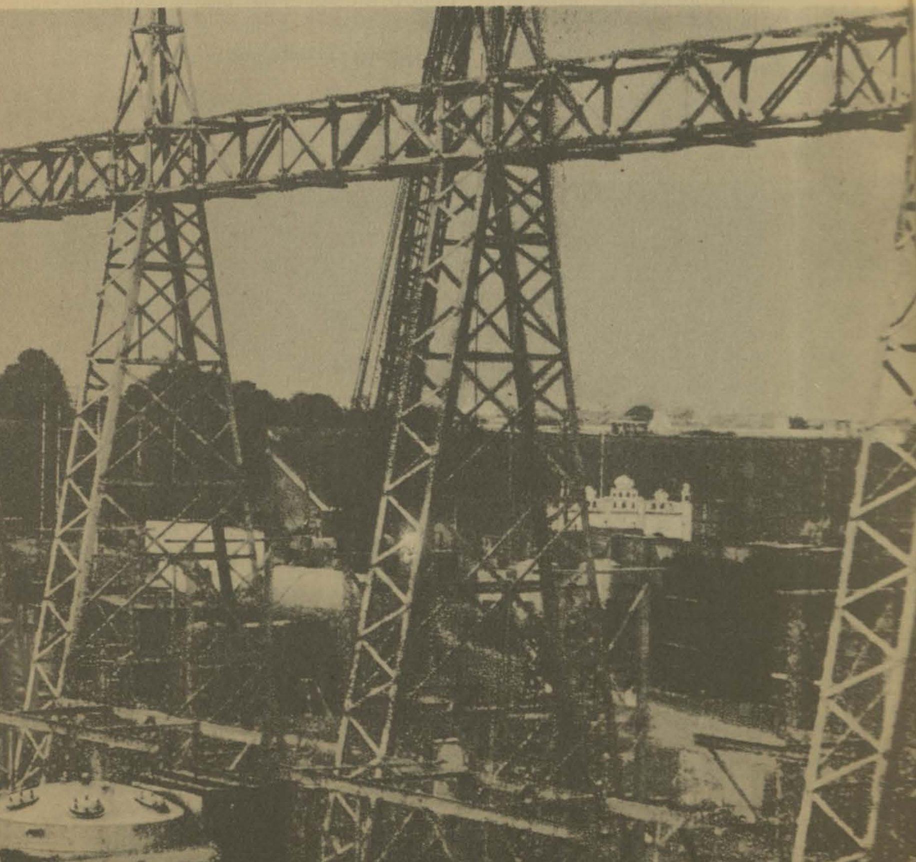
During the first two years of the Plan, the total generating capacity increased to 4,380 mkwh. In the field of transmission and distribution, 9,300 miles of transmission lines were added to the system. It was planned to add 100,000 new consumers every year to the WAPDA clientele during the Plan period. In the first year this target was exceeded and 113,600 new consumers were provided with electricity. Later progress was uneven. However, a total of 202,234 new connections had been added to WAPDA power system up to the end of 1967, including 10,489 private agricultural tube-wells, 12,235 industrial connections and 81,189 domestic connections. The northern grid has expanded all the way from Peshawar

The Quetta Thermal Power Station.



to Rahimyar Khan and Sadiqabad. The Sukkur grid has been extended northward to Daharki and will soon be linked to Sadiqabad. To the south, Hyderabad and Karachi will soon be covered by the grid with a 500 kw transmission line running from Tarbela to Karachi. The integrated transmission and distribution system will, thus, comprise 25,000 miles of power lines erected over a period of 10 years.

Switch yard of the Sukkur Power Station.



Transport and Communications

A GOOD transport and communications system is of prime importance to a developing nation, particularly Pakistan, which is divided into two provinces, 1,000 miles apart. The entire system has been developing steadily and at present contributes over 6 per cent to the gross national product. It employs more than 677,000 persons.

The Third Five-Year Plan placed transport and communications after the industries, fuels and minerals sectors in terms of allocation. Of the total Plan expenditure, 18.2 per cent has been allocated to the communications sector, which means an increase of more than 100 per cent over the period 1960-65. Special interest is being taken in the improvement of railways, civil aviation and inland water transport, the construction of new ports and the expansion of telecommunication facilities.

TRANSPORT

Pakistan makes significant use of all means of transport: road, rail, air, sea and inland waters. The last applies only to East Pakistan, large areas of which are waterbound. Air travel helps to link the two zones of the country.

Railways: The area that comprises Pakistan has had a railway system for over 100 years. The Pakistan Western Railways (PWR), as it is called today, began functioning in the middle of 1861, and the Pakistan Eastern Railways (PER) followed a year and a half later. At the time of Independence, the western zone of Pakistan had 4,999 route-miles and the eastern zone, 1,618 route-miles. The railway mileage in Pakistan is 1.9 to 100 square miles, which does not compare favourably with most other countries, but compares well with such large, thinly-

populated countries as Australia (1.1) and Canada (1.2).

Organization: Since July 1962, the railways have been administered by the two provincial Governments. There is an autonomous Railway Board in each province, whose chairman is responsible for taking all administrative and executive decisions and for advising the Government on railway policy. For smoother functioning, the railways are split into divisions, two in East Pakistan and six in West Pakistan.

Finance: The Third Plan allocated Rs. 1,500 million for Pakistan Western Railways and Rs. 915 million for Pakistan Eastern Railways. In the first two years of the Plan, however, investment in and implementation of major schemes lagged behind the Plan targets. Since provincialization of the railways, PWR had shown a profit of Rs. 180.2 million till the middle of 1966, while for the same period PER has shown a loss of Rs. 42.2 million. The budgets of the railways for 1966-67 are as follows:

(Million rupees)

	Revenue	Expenditure	Ratio
PER	241.5	228.2	94.5%
PWR	630.1	551.1	87.5%

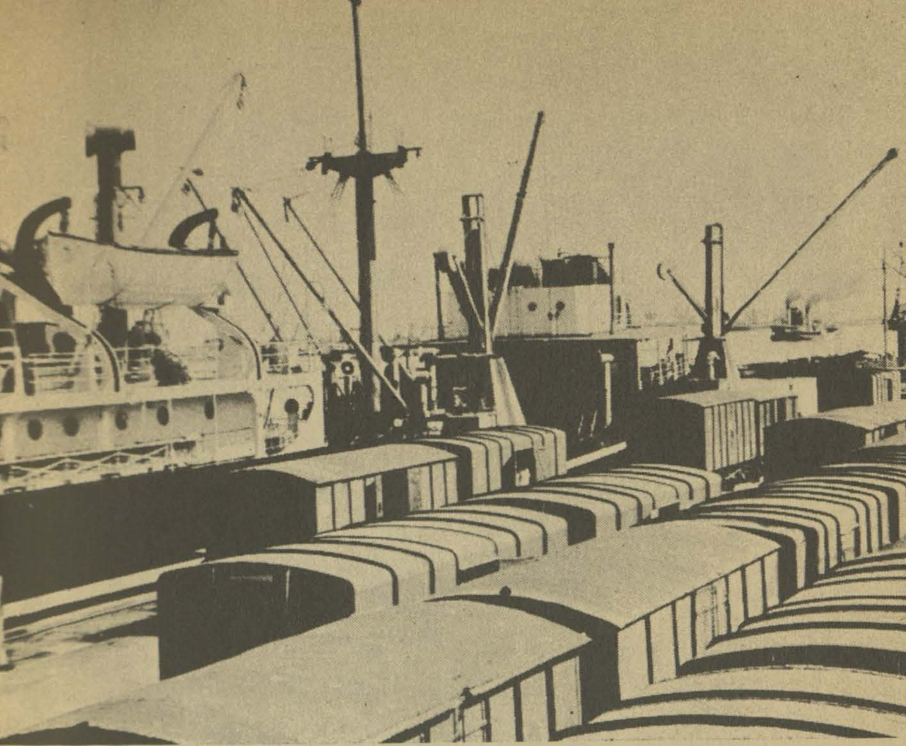
Development: Pakistan inherited its railway system in a very poor condition. The First Plan suggested the following measures for the rehabilitation of the railways: new track for the main lines and some important branch lines; purchase of diesel-electric locomotives, passenger coaches and wagons. The Second Plan provided, in addition to the above, the construction of railway lines, modernization of signalling techniques, strengthening of bridges and additions to rolling stock. The Third Plan aims at adding to the present capacity by developing electric traction, expanding dieselization, constructing new lines and remodelling yards and terminals.

The improvement of amenities for passengers includes modern waiting-rooms and platforms, reconstruction of old station buildings, provision of air-conditioning, water-coolers and telephone booths.

Routes: The principal routes of PER are: Dacca to Chittagong — 198 miles; Akhaura to Sylhet — 110 miles; Dacca to Bahadurabad — 106 miles; Dacca to Darsana — the distance including a steamer service is about 100 miles.

The principal routes of PWR are: Peshawar to Karachi — 1,045 miles *via* Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Lala Musa, Lahore, Multan, Rawalpindi, Khairpur and Hyderabad; Karachi to Quetta — 533 miles through the Bolan Pass *via* Kotri, Dadu, Jacobabad, Sibi and Spezand; Rohri to Chaman — 327 miles *via* Habibkot and Quetta; Lahore to Mari Indus — 330 miles through Lyallpur, Sargodha and Kundian.

Traffic: Yearly passenger traffic has increased from 6,462 million passenger-miles in 1956-57 to 8,212 passenger miles in 1966-67. On an average, each passenger travelled 27 miles in East Pakistan and 48.3 miles in West Pakistan. Only one out of every 200



Ships and Wagons at the Chittagong harbour.

passengers travelled first or second class, 12 travelled inter-class and the rest third class. The revenues earned by the two railways from passenger traffic are about 33.8 per cent in the case of PER and 37.1 in the case of PWR.

Freight: Freight traffic in million-ton miles has increased from 3,966 in 1956-57 to 5,855 in 1966-67. Freight charges make up about 52.7 per cent of the revenues of PER and about 55.1 per cent of the revenues of PWR. The former carries foodgrains, coal and coke, jute, railway stores, fruit and vegetables, marble and stone, cement, petroleum products, salt, iron and steel. The latter carries agricultural produce and livestock, stone, coal, fire-wood and cement, etc. The freight share of PER declined from about 20 per cent of the total in 1956-57 to 14 per cent in 1966-67.

Employees: A total of about 190,000 persons are employed by the railways, of which 68 per cent are in the West and 32 per cent in the East. Of the employees, 60 per cent are in the engineering department, 25 per cent in the traffic department in PER and 11 per cent in PWR, while the rest are on miscellaneous jobs.

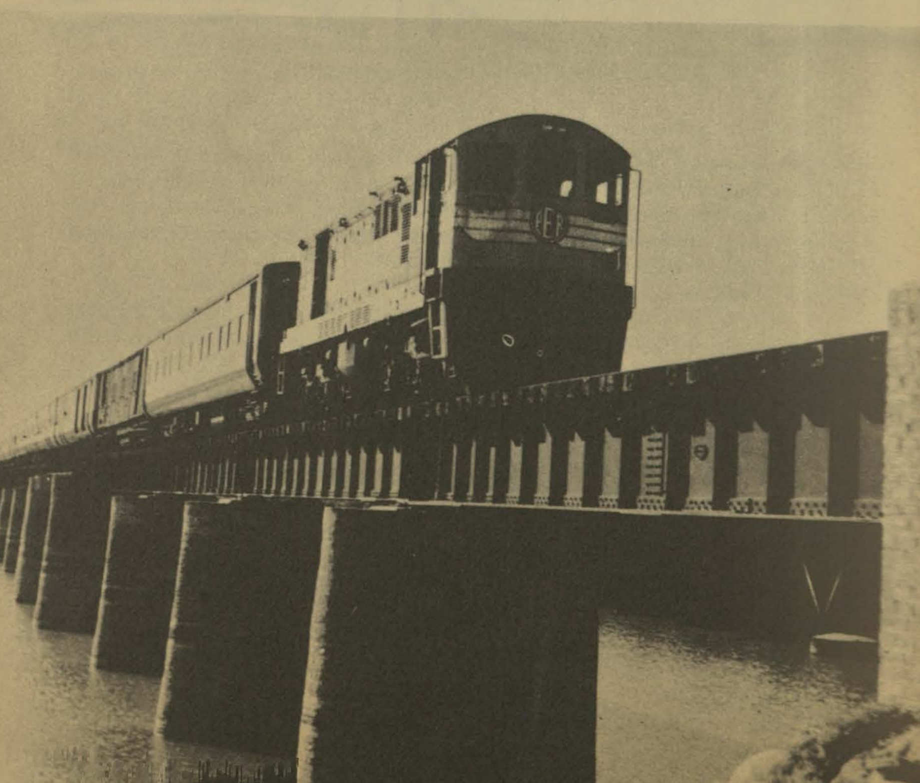
Training: The Walton Training School in West Pakistan, with 2,200 annual

trainees and the Lalmonirhat School in East Pakistan with 800 annual trainees are the principal schools. Among the staff trained are station masters, guards, signalmen, switchmen, ticket examiners and collectors, drivers, shunters, telegraphists and commercial clerks. There is a diesel school at Pahartali in East Pakistan and polytechnic institutes at Tejgaon (Dacca) and Chittagong, where mechanical and electrical courses are held. The Walton School contains the Regional Railway Training Centre, which was originally a UNESCO project, and gives training in railway operation and signalling to local students as well as students from the Middle East, the Far East and South East Asia.

Welfare: Railway staff enjoy housing, medical, educational and recreational benefits.

Roads: Road transport is an important and economical means of moving perishable and fragile goods from one place to another. It links up with other means of transport by collecting and distributing both passengers and goods at rail-heads, seaports and airports. It is of special significance in a country like Pakistan where a number of small production units are scattered over vast areas in the villages. Farm products are carried by road transport from the villages to the markets, as are raw materials to factories and manufactured goods to cities and towns.

A new bridge on the Kalaura-Sylhet section of P.E.R.





A bus tesminal at Peshawar.

Development: There has been steady development in the building and improving of roads since Independence. In East Pakistan, which is divided into two parts by the river Brahmaputra, there are numerous water courses. Main rivers, with their tributaries and distributaries, make inland water transport essential, but they also create the need for more roads and bridges. Even main roads break off at river banks, and journeys must be continued by ferries.

At the time of Independence there were 287 miles of all-weather roads in East Pakistan. The First Five-Year Plan allocated Rs. 165 million to road development and 708.52 miles of all-weather roads were completed. During the Second Plan period, 968.20 miles of all-weather roads were laid, and a further 217.39 miles during 1965-67. The mileage of high type roads was raised from 240 in 1947 to almost 2,000 by 1966-67. The Third Plan has allocated Rs. 1,100 million for the construction of another 1,283 miles of new roads and the improvement of 300 miles of existing roads.

In West Pakistan, roads are the only alternative to railways. In August 1947, West Pakistan had 13,781 miles of roads, of which 5,050 miles were all-weather and 8,731 miles of low type. The First Plan suggested ways of

expanding the existing system, and by the end of the Plan period there were 19,176 road-miles, of which 8,772 miles were all-weather and 10,404 miles of low type.

The Second Plan allocated Rs. 275 million, against the First Plan's Rs. 195 million, for the construction and development of roads. During the Plan period, 2,129 miles of road were completed, of which 1,310 miles were black top, 320 miles shingle and 499 miles of low type. 177 miles of existing roads were improved. By the end of the Second Plan, road mileage had increased to 21,758 — 9,971 miles all-weather and 11,787 miles of low type.

The Third Plan allocation of Rs. 900 million envisages the construction of 1,325 miles of roads, including 300 miles of high type, the reconditioning of 200 miles of existing roads and the improvement of the 900-mile long Karachi-Quetta-Zahidan road.

All important roads are being modernized in order to meet current as well as future traffic demands. A highway is being built between Karachi and Hyderabad which will reduce the distance by 30 miles, while other highways are scheduled for Lahore-Multan, Lahore-Lyallpur and Sheikhupura-Sargodha.

The Central Road Fund, which was established in 1949, gives 85 per cent of its funds for the construction of important roads and bridges while the remaining 15 per cent is used for road research, traffic work and experiments.

Inland Waterways: Three-quarters of the total traffic in East Pakistan is carried by inland water transport, and during the flood season it is the only means of communication for large areas. These waterways consist of 4,984 miles of navigable channels, of which about 3,113 miles are perennial water ways. The mechanized transport on these rivers consists of 'more than 2,200 steamers, motor vessels, launches and dumb craft, with a total carrying capacity of over 107,000 passengers and 214,220 tons of cargo. In addition, there are some 300,000 country boats with a carrying capacity of 1.4 million passengers and 1.2 million tons of freight, which is roughly five times as much as is handled by mechanized transport.

Administration: Mechanized water transport comes under the jurisdiction of the provincial Government. In 1958, an Inland Water Transport Authority was set up to organize and co-ordinate inland navigation. The Authority has five members, one of whom is the Chairman, and seven departments — secretariat, accounts and finance, conservancy and field work, engineering, ports, planning and traffic, and an advisory committee. The total revenue of IWTA during 1965-66 was Rs. 5.635 million.

Development: IWTA has been largely responsible for progress in inland navigation. In the Second Plan period, Rs. 316.11 million were spent (Rs. 134.11 in the public sector, and Rs. 182 million in the private sector) on the development schemes of the Authority. These included the provision of navigational facilities on the waterways, construction of a workshop at Barisal, development of the inland ports of Dacca, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Barisal



The Narayanganj Dockyard.

and Khulna, provision of landing stages for launch passengers, establishment of a salvage unit, and the introduction of more vessels for connecting the off-shore islands with the mainland.

There are five major river ports in East Pakistan, namely, Dacca, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Barisal and Khulna, and 1,407 launch stations, which handle more than 20 million passengers and 2.4 million tons of cargo every year.

EPSC: The East Pakistan Shipping Corporation, which started functioning in March 1964, runs coastal vessels for passengers and cargo and operates ferries. The services in operation at present are: Narayanganj to Chittagong, Chittagong to Cox's Bazar, and Chittagong to Khulna.

The Narayanganj-Chittagong service has opened up previously inaccessible areas. It is regular, even during the monsoon season, and helps to rush relief to the islands *en route*, which are frequently ravaged by storms and

cyclones. The ships have a capacity of 272 passengers and 200 tons of cargo and they ply every alternative day, stopping at Chandpur, Barisal, Ilisaghat, Ramgati, Hatiya and Sandwip on the way.

The Chittagong-Cox's Bazar service extends transport facilities to people of the coastal areas of Dhurung, Sanua, Bhola, Maghnama, Kutubdia, Ujantia, Matarbari, Badarkhali, J.M. Ghat and Adinath. The service operates three times a week and the vessels have a capacity of 200 passengers and 50 tons of cargo.

The fortnightly Chittagong-Khulna service for passengers and cargo operates *via* Sandwip, Hatiya and Ramgati.

EPSC runs ferries which connect important highways in the province. The routes are: Narayanganj-Daudkandi, Aricha-Nagarbari and Aricha-Goalundo. The large ferries have a carrying capacity of 100 passengers, four loaded trucks and four cars, while the smaller craft carry 50 passengers, two loaded trucks and two cars. The large ferries on the Narayanganj-Daudkandi route provide a direct link between Chittagong and Dacca. The ferries on the Aricha-Nagarbari and Aricha-Goalundo routes have, for the first time, connected the capital with both the northern and the southern districts.

Shipping: Pakistan is virtually a maritime country, having little overland trade and depending on sea-borne exports and imports for the development of the national economy.

Following the Maritime Commission's recommendation, the control of shipping policy was transferred from the Ministry of Commerce to the Ministry of Communications in 1960. The following year a Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping was set up for co-ordinating the two and for implementing the Government's shipping policy.

Development: The merchant shipping of Pakistan has maintained a steady rate of progress, from a modest beginning of three ships with 18,500 tons dead weight at the time of Independence. By the end of the Second Plan, the fleet had grown to 55 ships with 535,000 dead weight tons, and by the end of 1967, the figure had increased to 61 ships and 620,000 dead weight tons and a passenger-carrying capacity of 6,000. The present fleet consists of 54 dry cargo ships, six passenger or passenger-*cum*-cargo ships and one oil tanker. Another nine fast and modern ships (eight dry cargo and one passenger-*cum*-cargo) are under construction. Besides handling almost the entire coastal sea-borne trade, the Pakistan merchant fleet operates on international routes covering services to the UK, Europe, the USA, Canada, Australia, Indonesia, China, Japan, Burma, Ceylon, Iran, Turkey, the Persian Gulf states and the Red Sea ports. The entire Haj traffic is also carried by Pakistani ships. The Third Five-Year Plan has provided Rs. 600 million for raising the total strength of the merchant fleet to 98 ships with 1 million dead weight tons.

Policy: The shipping policy which was announced in September 1963 stressed

the need for increasing the volume of Pakistani shipping on foreign routes, both existing and new, modernization of the existing fleet, reorganization of the domestic service and streamlining of all procedures and practices.

As incentives to the shipping industry, a bonus of 30 per cent was offered on foreign exchange earnings from shipping; fuel, oil and lubricants used on the inter-zonal service were exempted from Customs Duty and Sales Tax; the national shipbuilding industry was granted a subsidy; inter-zonal freight rates were reduced; and a special inducement rate was introduced for certain commodities.

The Second Plan's provision of Rs. 103 million was increased to Rs. 380 million in the Third Plan. The Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works, which receives a 40 per cent subsidy from the Government, completed its first modern sea-going cargo ship of 12,860 dead weight tons in January 1968. The ship, 'Al-Abbas', was ordered by a Pakistani company. Following this important achievement, an order for another dry cargo ship has been placed by the National Shipping Corporation.

NSC: The National Shipping Corporation was set up in 1963 as a statutory autonomous body, the Government's share being 25 per cent and the remaining 75 per cent being held by the public. The Corporation is run on commercial lines with a Board of Directors, of whom the majority is non-official. It has a fleet of 21 ships with 216,000 dead weight tons. Another eight ships are under construction.*

The gross foreign exchange earnings of the Corporation between March 1964 and December 1967 amounted to Rs. 214.5 million. A total of 2.12 million tons of cargo on various routes were lifted by its vessels up to June 1967, including 780,000 tons carried in 1966-67 alone.

In addition to the National Shipping Corporation, which is the largest shipping company in Pakistan, 11 private Pakistani shipping companies, each with a strength of two to seven vessels, are in operation. The total strength is 40 ships.

International Co-operation: Pakistan collaborates with other countries on common routes to ensure the standardization of rates and services. These 'Conference Lines' establish a standard schedule and freight tariff.

The Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) covers a joint shipping venture by Iran, Turkey and Pakistan. Apart from handling the traffic from one country to another, the venture handles 50 per cent of the trade between these countries and the USA. The ratio of ships contributed by Pakistan, Turkey and Iran is 10:7:3 respectively.

NSC has an agreement with two shipping organizations in Indonesia, Bipalindo and Djakarta Lloyd, for a regular joint service between the two countries.

* Six of these were completed and in service by the end of 1968.



A view of the Karachi Shipyard's Dry Dock No. 1.

There is also a maritime transport agreement between Pakistan and China, whereby the 'most favoured nation treatment' will be accorded by each nation to the other's ships. The agreement between the National Shipping Corporation and the China Ocean Shipping Company provides for a regular service between Pakistan and China, which may also be extended to Africa.

Training: There are two full-fledged Seamen's Training Centres and a Marine Academy to produce qualified seamen for Pakistan's merchant navy. The existing force of officers and ratings is as follows:

Officers:

Deck Department	300
Engineering Department	400
Total	700

Ratings:

Karachi Port	7,100
Chittagong Port	6,500
Total	13,600

It is estimated that to meet the demands of Pakistan's continually expanding merchant fleet, 725 deck officers, 985 engineer officers and 20,000 ratings will be required by 1970.

Ports: Pakistan has three properly equipped ports, at Karachi, Chittagong and Chalna, and a fourth is due to be developed.

Karachi: As the only port in West Pakistan, which covers an area of 310,403 square miles, Karachi is of considerable importance to the country's shipping industry. It also handles the sea-borne trade of Afghanistan and Azad Kashmir. The anchorage area of the port is 2,474 acres, and there is a breakwater wall at Manora which is 1,150 feet long and 24 feet wide. The Keamari groyne on the eastern bank is 1.5 miles long. Together, these two protect the harbour against littoral drifts and silting. The Port Trust is administered by the Board of Trustees consisting of 11 members, including the chairman.

The port has the following facilities:

(a) Channel with a length of 4.27 miles;
(b) 17 Shipping berths on the east and four on the west.
(c) Two oil piers, one of 403 feet, but capable of berthing tankers up to 550 feet long, and a newly constructed berth of 644 feet.
(d) Boat wharf with 20 berths.
(e) Ten fixed moorings for both cargo handling and anchoring ships, and three swing moorings for light vessels.
(f) Boat basin providing ferry transport for the public and the Port Trust.
(g) Ship repairing berth for merchant navy ships not involving dry-docking.
Other normal facilities include rail and road connections for cargo, special equipment for cargo handling, ancillary craft and an open storage area.

During the year ending June 1968, Karachi port handled 8,663,000 tons as compared with 4,238,000 tons in 1957-58, an increase of about 106 per cent. The import tonnage handled during the year was over 6.40 million tons, which was 3.01 million tons more than in 1957-58. The export tonnage up to June 1968 rose to 2,258,000 as compared with 844,000 tons in 1957-58.

During 1966-67, 97,768 passengers, including 18,469 pilgrims, passed through Karachi port. This exceeded the previous year's figure by 12 per cent.

Chittagong: This principal port of East Pakistan is situated on the bank of the river Karnaphuli, north-east of the Bay of Bengal. The main port installations are 9 miles from the mouth of the river. The width of the channel varies between 670 feet and 1,100 feet.

Like Karachi, the Chittagong port is also administered by a Board of 11 Trustees, including a chairman, under the control of the Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping.

There are 11 permanent jetties and some light/pontoon jetties and moorings. An off-shore terminal, which



A view of the Khulna Shipyard.

supplies crude oil to the Eastern Refinery, also handles tankers up to 45,000 dead weight tons. Other facilities include cargo handling, storage, fresh water, fuel oil, harbour craft, lighterage fleet, fire protection and an ultra-high frequency radio network. At the time of Independence, the port had only four jetties and limited handling and storage capacity. Accelerated development was necessary to enable the port to handle the sea-borne jute trade of East Pakistan, the world's largest jute producing area.

The Third Plan envisages the construction of two new jetties, the reconstruction of four others, greater facilities for handling lighterage cargo, the building of new transit sheds and warehouses and additions to harbour craft, navigational aids, cargo handling equipment and so on. A master plan for the development of the port up to 1985 has been prepared.

From half a million tons at the time of Independence, Chittagong port handled 2.21, 3.29 and 4.05 million tons of cargo in 1957-58, 1964-65, and 1967-68 respectively. In 1964-65, 1965-66 and 1966-67 the passenger traffic was 44,683, 42,522 and 69,102, respectively.

Chalna: The port of Chalna was established to relieve pressure on Chittagong. Situated nine miles south of Chalna, it is served mainly by inland water transport vessels which load and unload cargo into and from ocean-going vessels at the anchorage. The port is directly controlled by the Central Government through a Port Director and his staff. There is also an advisory committee of nine, with the Port Director as chairman.

The anchorage has four swing moorings where vessels are made fast with their own cables. Eleven more ships can be safely anchored within four miles of the port. There are pilot and survey vessels, despatch launches, harbour tugs and other navigational facilities. Ultra-high frequency telephone communication is also available.

By 1970, the following work, when completed, will make Chalna a fully equipped port: construction of eight general cargo berths and of food-grain, bulk cargo and oil terminals; development of residential and administrative areas; extension of road and railway lines from Khulna to the port head, a distance of 28 miles; and construction of a rail-*cum*-road bridge over the Rupsa river. Despite its incomplete State the Chalna port has been handling steadily increasing traffic: 0.82 million tons in 1957-58; 1 million tons in 1964-65, and 1.88 million tons in 1967-68. And over this period the volume of imports trebeled from 306,000 tons to 910,000 tons.

Civil Aviation: Pakistan's progress in civil aviation has been one of the most heartening features of the country's development. Lacking in navigational aids, trained personnel and modern equipment, and with only one international airport — Karachi — the expansion has been rapid and continuous.

PIA: The Pakistan International Airlines was established in 1954 as the successor to Orient Airways, which

began with its headquarters at Calcutta. After Independence, Orient Airways transferred its headquarters to Karachi and began a series of flights for refugees from Delhi to Karachi and Lahore. Its domestic flight service between East and West Pakistan was an instant success, and within a year the service increased from once a week to daily, and the mileage from 42,000 to 165,000. The Convairs, which flew *via* Delhi, took nine hours to complete the journey. Later, Orient Airways successfully undertook flights to Gilgit and Skardu, high on the Himalayan mountains. The DC 3s did this journey in 80 minutes, carrying essential supplies such as wheat, rice, fuel, kerosene and salt. A year after the establishment of Pakistan International Airlines, as the national airlines, Orient Airways was merged with it.

PIA is an autonomous public corporation with a board of directors. It has been making a profit consistently since 1959. The net profit for the year 1964-65 was Rs. 49.22 million against Rs. 32.73 million for the preceding year.

During the two years, 1965-66 and 1966-67, PIA achieved its most rapid expansion ever. Passenger miles increased by 32 per cent, cargo ton miles by 44 per cent, and the number of domestic routes increased from 18 to 24. International traffic in terms of revenue ton-miles expanded enormously by 62 per cent. Ten more cities were added to the 14 already served. In addition, frequencies were increased on most of the routes.

The PIA fleet consisted of the following aircraft in September 1968:

Boeing 720-B	3
Boeing 707-340C	4
Trident 1E	4
Super Constellation 1049H	2
Fokker Friendship F-27	11
S-61N (Helicopter)	1
Hiller E4 (Helicopter)	1
Total	26

This increased over-all capacity in 1966-67 to 165 million ton-miles and revenue ton-miles to 98 million. In 1967-68 the operating revenue was Rs. 390.77 million and the operating Profit Rs. 42.18 million.

PIA handles all air routes within the country and all international air services originating in Pakistan. The first jet service was started in 1960 on the Karachi - Tehran - Beirut - Rome - Geneva-London route. In 1964, PIA became the first international airline in the world outside the socialist block to operate a service to the People's Republic of China. PIA jet services currently operate to Tehran, Dhahran, Kuwait, Beirut, Istanbul, Rome, Geneva, Moscow, Frankfurt, Paris, London, Nairobi and Cairo in the west, and Canton, Shanghai, Rangoon and Bangkok in the east. It also has services to Baghdad, Kuwait, Bahrain, Dubai and Doha in the Gulf region.

Feeder services have been introduced in West Pakistan, which help to bring smaller regions into contact with bigger cities and with one another.

Traffic Control: Flight information centres at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca

provide information to aircraft in their respective regions. In addition, a Radar Control Service at Karachi controls the entire traffic operating within 50 miles of the airport.

An aeronautical information service collects and disseminates information, while an International Notam (Notice to Airmen) office receives Notams from other countries and sends its own Notams to them.

Flight Safety: The Flight Inspection Division, set up by Department of Civil Aviation, conducts theoretical and practical tests of candidates before issuing licences. It also investigates aircraft accidents and checks flying standards in the country.

The Aeronautical Inspection Division of the Department ensures a high standard of maintenance for engines and air frames, investigates aircraft defects, examines flight personnel and issues licences.

Engineering: PIA's engineering department maintains a high standard. It not only meets most of the airline's needs, but also undertakes repairs of foreign aircraft.

Flight and ground personnel are given rigorous training so as to enable them to handle all types of aircraft. About 400 courses are organized annually, and they are attended by about 2,000 employees comprising flight crew and ground staff. The conversion training for Tridents was carried out entirely by the PIA training school. China, Nepal, Iran and Nigeria are among the countries which use PIA's training facilities.

Airports: A 10,500-foot runway for jets was added to the Karachi airport in 1960 and a new international jet airport at a cost of Rs. 170 million is under construction at Dacca. Jet airports are also planned for Lahore, Rawalpindi and Chittagong. To accommodate PIA's Feeder Services, the aerodromes at Sukkur, Rahimyar Khan, Pasni, Gwadur and Panjgur have been renovated. Progress is also being made on the international airport to be built at Islamabad. Radio communication and air-navigation aids are constantly being improved in both wings of the country.

International Agreements: Pakistan is a member of both the Warsaw Convention of 1929 and the Hague Protocol of 1955, which limit the liability of air carriers on international flights. The Carriage by Air (International Convention) Act of 1966 gives the legal heirs of a person who is killed or injured in an air accident the right to claim compensation from the carrier. Pakistan is a member of the International Civil Aviation Organization at Montreal and the Commonwealth Air Transport Council at London.

International air traffic to and through Pakistan is regulated by bilateral air service agreements between Pakistan and the countries concerned. Pakistan has such agreements with over 30 countries, while 24 foreign airlines operate scheduled services to and through Pakistan.

COMMUNICATIONS

The Central Government is the administrative authority for postal services and telecommunications. At-

tached to the Ministry of Communications, the Post Office Department and the Telephone and Telegraph Directorate are directly responsible for the maintenance and development of their respective organizations. Each headed by a Director-General, these two departments employ more than 40,000 persons full-time and more than 16,000 part-time.

Post Office: In addition to normal postal services, the Post Office offers a variety of other services, such as banking facilities, Postal Life Insurance, collection of excise revenue through the sale of excise stamps, radio licences, disbursing pensions of defence personnel — and the sale of anti-malaria drugs.

There are four postal circles, two in each province. Their headquarters are at Dacca and Khulna in the East and Karachi and Lahore in the West. These circles are sub-divided into divisions headed by a superintendent. The Post Office Department also has a life insurance organization, an organization for stamps, and seven Regional Training Centres at Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi in the western zone and Dacca, Rajshahi, Chittagong and Khulna in the eastern.

The postage stamp was introduced in 1854 and the air mail postcard in 1931. The carriage of mail by air to India in 1929 by Imperial Airways and then by KLM and Air France was an important landmark. Although at the time of Independence, Pakistan's postal service was not properly integrated or co-ordinated, the need to establish rapid and regular communication between the two zones led to quick expansion and satisfactory improvement.

Beginning with 6,474 post offices in 1947, Pakistan now has more than double that number. In order to reach less accessible areas, offices or postal agencies are being opened in the villages. At the present rate of growth, every population unit of 1,500 will soon have a post office of its own. The Third Plan target is 500 new post offices a year, of which 400 will be in rural areas.

Mail traffic has risen by 125 per cent since 1948-49. Remittances through post offices have gone up by 133 per cent in number and 208 per cent in value. Over two million registered and unregistered articles and over 31,000 money orders, worth Rs. 2 million, are handled every day.

Due to the rapid expansion of PIA, almost all mail is airlifted. More than 6,250 pounds of mail is airlifted to inland destinations every day and 1,000 pounds to overseas destinations.

Automatic stamp-vending and electrically operated stamp-cancelling machines, franking machines and three electro-mechanical letter sorting machines are being used for greater efficiency. The letter sorting machines work at the rate of 100 letters per minute, compared to 10 per minute manually. Motorized transport and motor launches are also being used to speed up delivery.

There are over 100 post offices which offer night service facilities; and at important centres the sale of stamps and the booking of registered mail is also

done on Sundays and other postal holidays. Mobile post offices have also been introduced to serve rural areas.

The growth in the size of the Post Office budget may be seen in the following figures:

Post Office Budget

(million rupees)

	1948-49	1965-66 Revised Estimates	1966-67 Budget Estimates
Revenue	22.7	90.8	104.5
Expenditure	27.0	87.2	91.7
Net Revenue	—4.3	+3.6	+12.8

Postal Insurance: Postal Life Insurance is the biggest life insurance organization in the country. It is open to all members of the public, but its chief objective is to attract low income group workers in rural areas where private insurance companies do not operate.

Postal insurance policies are guaranteed by the Government, and all profits are paid to policy-holders in the shape of a five-yearly bonus. The rate for 1962-67 was Rs. 36 per thousand per annum for whole life and Rs. 27 per thousand per annum for endowment policies.

On an average, more than 2,000 new policies are taken out every month.

Savings Bank: The same low-income group in rural areas is catered for by the Post Office banking facilities. The rates of interest are 5 per cent per annum, calculated monthly, on ordinary deposits, and 5.5 per cent, 6 per cent and 7 per cent on fixed deposits for one, two and five years, respectively.

Defence Savings Certificates and Prize Bonds are two popular forms of Government security which can be purchased from post offices. The Post Office handles between Rs. 75 to Rs. 100 million in savings every month.

Telecommunications: The administration of telecommunications in Pakistan is in the hands of the Telegraph and Telephone Directorate at Karachi, which has zonal offices in Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.

The telecommunication network at the time of Independence was in bad shape and needed complete overhaul and rapid expansion to meet the needs of the country. Progress until 1959 was slow, but since then much improvement has taken place. Pakistan is connected with many major cities in the world through telegraph and telephone lines and teleprinter. Automatic exchanges have gradually replaced manually operated exchanges

internally, and long distance calls between important cities can be done through direct dialling instead of through the exchanges. A telephone factory at Haripur manufactures exchange equipment and trunk boards as well as telephones.

The total number of telephones in use in Pakistan at the end of 1967 was 157,500, showing an increase of 12,500 in one years. This number is expected to rise to 180,000 before the end of 1968.

In West Pakistan, exchanges were expanded at Rawalpindi, Lyallpur, Islamabad, Sahiwal, Abbottabad and Peshawar and in East Pakistan at Dacca, Mymensingh and Daulatpur. Out of the 25 new exchanges opened in the country, 16 are in East Pakistan and nine in West Pakistan.

Nine large private automatic branch exchanges and seven small PBXs, with a total capacity of 2,359 lines, were installed during 1967

The long-distance trunk network was expanded during this period to keep pace with the increasing demand for trunk traffic. A 40-channel microwave system was installed between Rawalpindi and Murree, while 12 channels were provided for Karachi-Rawalpindi and Lahore-Rawalpindi and 18 channels for the Karachi-Lahore traffic.

In East Pakistan work has started on a 960-channel microwave system for Dacca-Chittagong, Dacca-Kushtia, and Dacca-Khulna link-up. This system will be completed by the middle of 1969.

Rural areas: Expansion and consolidation of telecommunications in the rural areas has also been taken in hand. In East Pakistan, 398 thanas out of 413 have already been provided with telephone facilities, while work is in progress for providing public call offices in the remaining 15 towns. Out of the 55 public offices opened in 1967, 47 are situated in East Pakistan and nine in West Pakistan.

A new 100-line auto telex exchange was opened in Rawalpindi, while the existing manual telex exchange at Lahore has been replaced by a 100-line auto exchange. Telex subscribers at Rawalpindi, Lahore and Karachi can now make telex calls by direct dialling.

The existing 12 channels of high-frequency radio telephone links between East and West Pakistan are being increased to 24, and a project for communication between East and West Pakistan *via* the satellite over the Indian Ocean has been taken in hand. Measures are in progress to implement this scheme which will provide 40 channels.

International Services: During 1967, radio telephone services were established between Karachi, Kuwait, Romania *via* Berne and Ankara, Alaska, Puerto Rica and Virginia Islands *via* London. Photo-telegraph service was introduced between Karachi and Moscow. A direct telex link was established between Karachi and Tehran.

Manufacturing Facilities: Building work on a cable factory in Khulna and an additional telephone factory at Dacca has been started. Negotiations are in progress for the establishment of a

carrier equipment factory, expansion of the existing telephone factory at Haripur, and extension of production facilities for teleprinter machines.

On implementation of these schemes, the over-all annual production will be:

(i)	Telephone exchange equipment EMD	60,000 lines
(ii)	Private branch exchange	18,000 lines
(iii)	Telephone instruments	110,000
(iv)	12-Channel carrier system	40 terminals
(v)	Channel modulators	1,400
(vi)	Voice-frequency telegraph channel ends	500
(vii)	Teleprinter machines	1,000
(viii)	Cable conductor	140,000 miles.

To meet the growing demand for telegraph poles and associated accessories, expansion of the departmental workshops at Kotri and Dacca is in hand. On completion, these workshops will be able to produce about 100,000 poles a year, with associated accessories. The department invested a total of

A newly constructed bridge spanning the Indus river at Tarbela.



Rs. 142.6 million in various development projects during the year 1966-67. The total revenue of the department during the year 1966-67 was Rs. 216.85 million as against an expenditure of Rs. 134.74 million, giving a total surplus of Rs. 82.11 million.

Telegraphic Service: There are about 1,400 telegraph offices which handle over 15,000 messages every day. Telegraph channels have been increasing at the rate of nearly 5,000 miles per year, and a further increase is likely.

Automatic telegraph exchanges exist or are in the process of being set up at Dacca, Kushtia, Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Sukkur.

The allocation for TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS in the Third Plan was Rs. 10,611 million in the private and public sectors, of which Rs. 6,711 million was in the public sector. In the first three years of the plan, Rs. 2,482 million have been spent. The Annual Development Programme for 1967-68 and 1968-69 is as follows (Allocation in millions) :

(Million Rs.)

	1967-68 Revised	1968-69
East Pakistan		
Pakistan Eastern Railways	132.27	153.0
Roads	116.92	149.6
IWTA	29.35	38.4
Others, EPRTC, EPSC	4.26	17.8
Total	282.80	358.8
West Pakistan		
Pakistan Western Railways	289.84	303.0
Roads	110.27	184.7
Total	400.11	487.7
Central Programme		
Ports and Shipping	20.80	50.0
Civil Aviation	97.15	99.0
Roads	62.96	60.9
Telegraphs and Telephones	140.00	185.0
Broadcasting, Post Office, etc.	50.39	62.3
Total	371.30	457.2

Works Programme

ALL DEVELOPMENT activity must aim at and, finally result in, amelioration of the conditions of living of the people at large. It has meaning and reality only to the extent to which it succeeds in doing so. In Pakistan, where the vast majority of people lives in villages and the rural areas, this means, by and large, carrying the benefits of civilization to these areas so as to bring about an increasing participation of the rural population in development activity.

The Rural Works Programme aims precisely at this by supplementing the country's centralized planned development programme with local projects of rural character. It injects capital into the rural economy through fruitful mobilization of local resources and labour, creating employment for the idle, or partially idle or seasonally employed labour, and affording improved conditions of life to the rural population by undertaking such projects as road building, drainage and sanitation, bridges and culverts, local schools and health services.

The programme developed out of a small pilot project early in the Second Five-Year Plan, in the Comilla district of East Pakistan. The project did not form part of the Second Plan and was financed by a small allocation of Rs. 100,000 out of the counter-part funds against PL 480 commodity purchases. The project proved to be a tremendous success. In terms of saving of crops from flood damage alone, the benefits of the project were estimated at the value of approximately Rs. 720,000 for the *aus* crop and Rs. 180,000 for the subsequent *aman* crop during one year alone.

In view of these encouraging results, the project was incorporated in a

regular programme of rural development works for which an allocation of Rs. 100 million was made for East Pakistan in 1962-63. The next year, the amount was doubled and West Pakistan also took over the programme with an allocation of Rs. 100 million. The programme has since been incorporated as a regular feature of the Third Five-Year Plan which defines the following objectives:

(a) Creation of an infra-structure for the rural economy such as roads, bridges, irrigation channels, flood protection embankments and drinking-water facilities in rural areas.

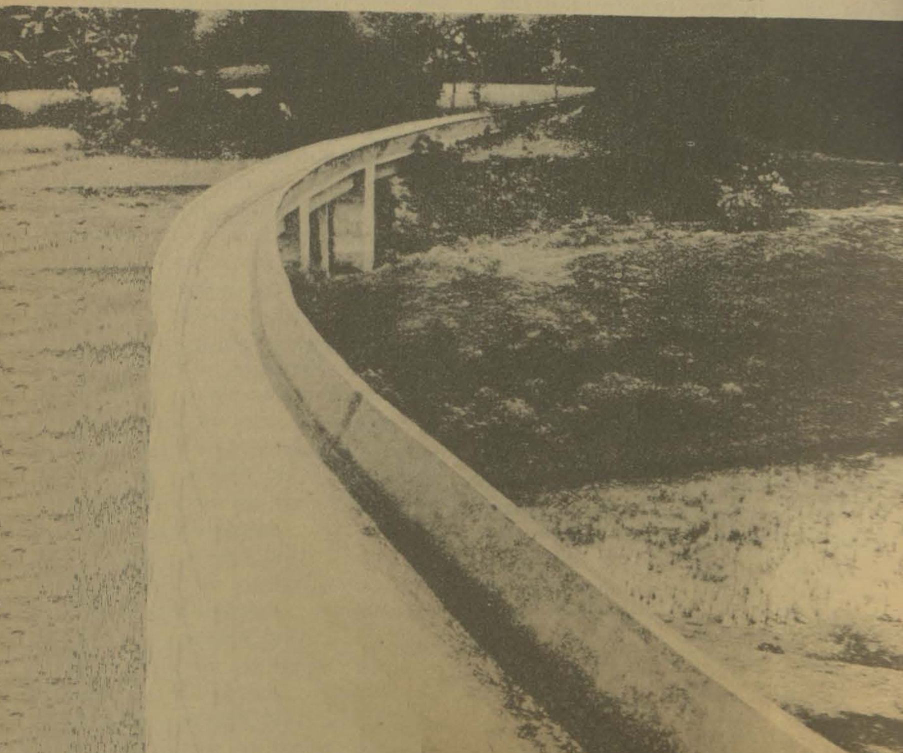
(b) Provision of larger employment opportunities in the villages.

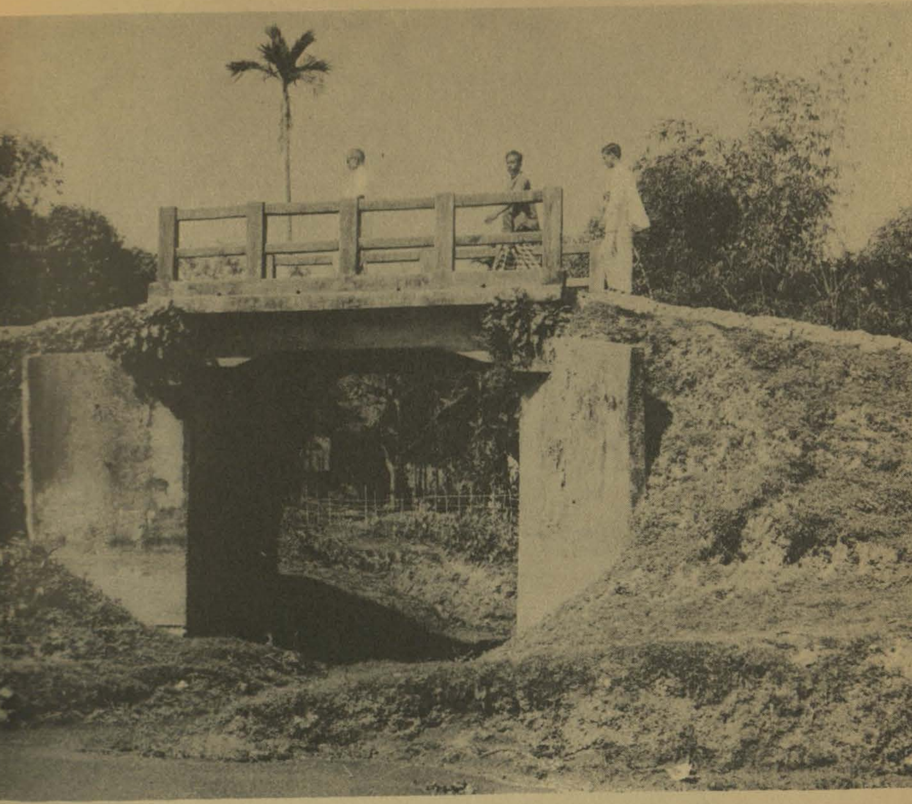
(c) Creation of an effective nucleus of planning and development at the local level and association of a much larger segment of the population with the country's development effort.

(d) Mobilization of additional monetary and manpower resources for local projects through local taxation by the Basic Democracies or voluntary contribution in cash, kind or man-hours.

Mode of Operation: In order to encourage local initiative and participation of the largest number of

Re-inforced concrete drain constructed by the Madhupur Union Council in the Mymensingh District.





A concrete bridge at Sunamganj in East Pakistan.

people in the most direct manner and at the most basic level, the planning and execution of the entire programme has been entrusted to the Basic Democracies in both East and West Pakistan as well as the centrally-administered areas of Gilgit, Baltistan and Azad Kashmir. Plans are initiated at the ward level and then approved and consolidated at the next higher level, that is, the Union Committee and thereafter the Tehsil or Thana Committee. In the final stage, they are approved by the District Council which sanctions the required funds and allots priorities. The District Council may also sponsor its own projects for specific areas but, ordinarily, maximum autonomy is allowed to the lower levels in the initiation and working of the programme. The Government, at higher levels, confines its interest or interference to the barest minimum by way of regularization of obvious discrepancies, co-ordination

and adjustment of schemes with national planning and priorities, and the evaluation of projects and achievements.

The final execution of approved projects is entrusted to project committees in the specific wards to which the project belongs. All ward committees function as project committees of the respective thana or union councils. They mobilize labour, arrange supplies of materials, conduct execution of the work and keep accounts according to a prescribed pattern. At higher levels, district and municipal committees function as their own project committees.

In view of the immense size and wide perspective of the Works Programme, its administration and accounting processes were bound to present formidable problems which are being systematically tackled as they arise. Elaborate procedures have been formulated for maintenance and checking of accounts and evaluation of the work done from time to time. An accounts manual has been devised to systematize accounting and to introduce financial discipline in the conduct of the programme. A reporting system has also been introduced to enable the Government to keep a watch on the progress of the works undertaken as part of the programme. To evaluate the programme, a high-level Evaluation Committee has been formed which will review the existing procedures and suggest improvements. Another Evaluation and Inspection Team has been constituted to inspect the works on the spot and report to the Government.

Finances: After the end of the Second Plan period, when the Rural Works Programme was attaining its full momentum, unexpected financial strains were experienced. Financial arrangements had, therefore, to be revised along with the size of the programme.

The Second Plan programme envisaged an expenditure of Rs. 1600 million, of which only half could be allocated during the Plan. For the Third Plan period, the original allocation of Rs. 2,500 million was subsequently reduced to Rs. 1,820 million. Yearly allocations for the Programme since its inception are shown in the table below:

(*Million Rupees*)

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Centre	Total
1962-63	100.0	—	—	100.0
1963-64	200.0	100.0	—	300.0
1964-65	153.0	100.0	—	253.0
1965-66	120.0	63.2	—	183.2
1966-67	105.0	50.0	3.5	158.5
1967-68	150.0	100.0	—	250.0
Total	828.0	413.2	3.5	1244.7

An allocation of Rs. 365.8 million has been proposed for the Works Programme in 1968-69, Rs. 261.1 million in East Pakistan, Rs. 100 million in West Pakistan and Rs. 4.70 million in the Central areas. This is out of a total allocation of Rs. 1,820 million for the entire Third Plan period of which Rs. 1,200 million are earmarked for East Pakistan, Rs. 600 million for West Pakistan and Rs. 20 million for Centrally-administered areas of Gilgit, Baltistan and Azad Kashmir. During the first half of the Plan (1965-66 to 1967-68) a total of Rs. 335 million is estimated to have been spent on the programme, Rs. 221 million in East Pakistan, Rs. 107 million in West Pakistan and the balance in Azad Kashmir and the northern areas. This partial utilization of funds is mainly due to other demands on the financial resources of the country as a whole. Necessary adjustments in the financial arrangements are being worked out to enable the programme to attain its full tempo.

Achievements: Despite the financial bottle-neck, the Rural Works Programme has made steady headway. Starting with a small, Rs. 100,000 pilot project in a single thana of East Pakistan, it has been expanded to cover the entire territories of East and West Pakistan as well as Azad Kashmir and the northern areas. Financial strains have been largely offset by the fact that the rural economy is as yet only partially monetized and can take but limited doses of cash capital. In any case, the substantial increases in the allocation for the Works Programme in 1967-68 and subsequent year is a clear indication that the required momentum is being steadily built up for it.

This is reflected, not only in the physical targets attained by the

An irrigation pump begins functioning at Mograpura V. C., Dacca.



programme, but also in the inducement it has provided to the rural population for improving their lot by their own efforts. A new cadre of grassroots leadership is visibly emerging to take charge of the immediate problems facing the people and build their future with their own hands.

East Pakistan: As stipulated by the authors of the programme, the nature of projects undertaken and accomplished in different parts of the country varies in accordance with local conditions and the needs of the people. Thus, in East Pakistan, the projects executed under the Works Programme relate mainly to flood control, communications, irrigation and construction. In the flood control and irrigation sector, 3,884 miles of embankments were constructed, and 2,515 miles of irrigation and drainage channels dug. In the building sector, 1,693 buildings have been built for thana training and development centres, coastal community centres, town halls, and other such purposes. On the communications side, 34,519 miles of *kutcha* roads and 1,188 miles of metalled roads were built, along with 20,565 bridges and culverts. In addition, 129 derelict tanks were re-built and brought back into service and 31 playgrounds for children were prepared. An important project, started since 1966-67, was the Thana Pilot Irrigation programme by which pump groups have been organized by the village representatives. For 1968-69, new types of programmes with a more pronounced agricultural orientation are envisaged. Emphasis will be on agricultural extension, coastal afforestation, cyclone shelters and thana irrigation projects.

West Pakistan: The major projects executed under the Works Programme in West Pakistan related to transport and communications, health and sanitation, drainage and irrigation, village education, social welfare and agricultural development. Over 1,526 miles of metalled and treated roads were constructed, and 2,260 miles of *kutcha* roads, together with more than 4,020 bridges and culverts built. In the irrigation and drainage sector, 110 tube-wells, 777 open-surface wells and 267 karezes were bored, while as many as 5,711 hand-pumps were set up and 278 clean-water tanks constructed in the public health sector. A large number of sanitary drains were built or repaired and 352 village dispensaries set up. Under the educational and social wellfare programmes, 1,902 village schools and 558 community centres have been opened as part of the Works Programme, as also 150 veterinary hospitals, and facilities for the distribution of seeds, fertilizers and live stock. For 1968-69, more intensive work is planned on road building and improvement of communications to which 50 per cent of the available funds are being devoted.

Central Areas: In Azad Kashmir, 114 miles of vehicular roads, 32 miles of pony tracks and 35 bridges were constructed, as well as 130 school buildings, 18 lift-pumps and 18 tanks. In Gilgit and Baltistan, 29 schemes relating to the transport and communications facilities were undertaken, including bridle-paths, pony-tracks, foot-bridges and forest feeder roads. In addition, 101 projects were executed for provision of water tanks and irrigation channels.

Trade and Commerce

THE VITAL role played by private enterprise is borne out by the progressive increase in the allocation earmarked for the private sector in the Five-Year Plans. Thus, the first Plan (1955-56 to 1959-60) allocation to the private sector was Rs. 3,300 million out of a total development outlay of Rs. 10,800 million. Encouraged by the impressive performance of the private sector, the investment target was raised to Rs. 4,000 million and in the Second Plan the figure was raised to 7,500 million. In the Third Plan, Rs. 22,000 million is proposed for the private sector which is twice as much as the investment in the First and Second Plans.

With the liberalization of import policy, investment controls and improvement in the institutional framework for saving and investment, the Third Plan visualizes further momentum in private economic activity, particularly in East Pakistan.

In West Pakistan, except for certain key producer goods and heavy industries such as fertilizers, machine-tools and ship-repairing, all other industries such as food processing, textiles, hardboard, chemicals and cement will be developed in the private sector. In East Pakistan, as private capital is comparatively inadequate, some industries such as sugar, jute manufacturing, newsprint and hardboard, chemicals, cement and steel will be initiated in the public sector with maximum available private participation. These projects will be disinvested as and when the private sector is in a position to take them over.

However, the allocations proposed for the private sector are viewed as broad expenditure targets based on

Plan objectives and priorities rather than as centrally determined specific programmes.

By way of encouragement, the Government provides tax concessions, extends credit facilities and pursues a taxation policy which will stimulate industrial activity in the private sector. For these purposes, the country has been divided into three types of areas based on the stage of development reached. Undertakings in some areas are eligible for tax holiday for six years, others for four years and, those in relatively better-developed areas, for two years.

Special concessions have been given to industries engaged in exploration for and exploitation of oil, natural gas and other mineral deposits in Pakistan. Because most of these mineral resources are located in under-developed areas, such enterprises get the benefit of the tax holiday for a period of six years.

Further, industrial enterprise in mining can either claim the benefit of the tax holiday provision or elect to take advantage of the following concessions:

(a) All expenditure on prospecting and exploration up to the stage of commercial production can be set off against future income after the commencement of commercial production.

(b) All capital expenditure on machinery and equipment may be allowed as revenue expenditure.

(c) If the mineral in question is also 'refined' or 'concentrated' in Pakistan, profits equal to 5 per cent of the capital employed in the refining undertaking will be exempt from tax for the first five years. The undertakings have also the option to take advantage of the "tax holiday" provisions if they appear more beneficial.

To encourage the shipping industry, the rate of the initial depreciation allowance has been recently raised from 25 per cent to 40 per cent, enabling a shipowner to recoup his capital in about 7 years, through depreciation allowances, instead of 10 as at present. Recognized shipyards have been exempted from sales tax.

Foreign Private Investment: To give the necessary fillip to industrial development in Pakistan, the Government has adopted a liberal policy towards foreign entrepreneurs, who may set up any approved industry in the private sector with or without the participation of local capital.

The following safeguards, concessions and conditions are extended and applied to foreign investment in industries:

(a) There is no restriction on the remittance of current profits to the country from which the investment originated.

(b) Foreign capital in approved industries established after September 1, 1954 may be repatriated at any time hereafter to the extent of the original investment, to the country from which the investment originated.

(c) Any part of the profits derived from investment and ploughed back into approved industrial projects, with the approval of the Government of Pakistan, may be treated as investment for the purpose of repatriation.

(d) Appreciation of any capital in-

vestment under (b) and (c) above may also be treated as investment for repatriation purposes. Such repatriation facilities will, however, be subject to such Exchange Control Regulations as are in force from time to time and will not apply to (i) the purchase of shares on the Stock Exchange unless it is an integral part of an approved investment project, and (ii) capital invested in Pakistan before September 1, 1954.

Compensation Guarantees: (a) The Government has no policy of nationalization, the only exception which may arise is in the case of emergency necessitating nationalization in any particular case. In such event, just and fair compensation will be paid in the currency of the country of origin.

(b) An investment guarantee agreement is in force between the USA and Pakistan, under which the US Government guarantees investment by private American investors in business enterprises in Pakistan against losses arising from inconvertibility of foreign currency earnings into dollars or against expropriation. An agreement has also been entered into with the Federal Republic of Germany for the promotion and protection of investments in Pakistan of German nationals.

Other Concessions: (i) There will be no rigidity about the participation of Pakistani capital in any industry where foreign investment is approved by the Government but, in the case of oil refining, the Government will expect a substantial participation of Pakistan equity capital.

(ii) Relief from double taxation is available for foreign investors from countries with which Pakistan has concluded agreements for the avoidance of double taxation, such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, Sweden, Switzerland and Denmark. Similar agreements have also been negotiated with many other countries.

(iii) Foreign nationals employed in Pakistan are allowed to make monthly remittances to their home country for the maintenance of their dependants at the rate of 50 per cent of the net salary and, after retirement, are permitted to transfer their savings and capital assets.

In keeping with the above policy, foreign investment is particularly welcome in the following industries for which substantial provisions exist in the Third Plan schedule:

I. Metallurgical Engineering: Iron and steel including finished steel, ingots and special steel; ferro chrome and ferro alloys; aluminium smelting and extrusion; copper smelting and extrusion.

II. Mechanical Engineering: Agricultural machinery and implements; tractors and components; textile machinery and parts; mining and construction machinery and parts; machine tools; hand and small tools; ball and roller bearings; boilers and compressors; stationary and marine diesel engines; metal structures, such as transmission towers, stairs, bridges; mechanically-propelled vehicles, their engines and parts; aircraft and their components; locomotives and rolling stock.

III. Electrical Engineering: Electri-

cal machinery, apparatus, appliances, accessories and fittings; motors, switchgear and transformers; wires and cables; accumulators and dry batteries; industrial air-conditioners and refrigerators; electrical instruments; telecommunications, electronic equipment and devices and components.

IV. Chemicals: Drugs and pharmaceuticals (basic manufacture); organic and inorganic chemicals; dyes and pigments; insecticides, pesticides, fumigants and herbixides; fertilizers; petrochemicals; coal carbonization; liquefaction of gas; cellulose and synthetic fibre; commercial explosives.

V. Mineral and Non-metallic Products: Prospecting, mining and processing of all minerals; heavy duty refractories; glass and glass products, such as, scientific and neutral glass; specialized sanitary-ware.

VI. Textiles: Sericulture, reeling and filature.

VII. Food Products: Poultry farming; dairy farming; live-stock feed; canning, preservation and accelerated deep-freezing of fruits and vegetables; instant tea and coffee.

VIII. Miscellaneous: Industries based on agricultural and industrial waste; industries based on slaughter-house waste; photographic and film materials; raw film and photographic paper; tyres and tubes excluding cycle tyre and tubes; watches and clocks; fire-fighting equipment and appliances; scientific and precision instruments; typewriters, calculating machines and other office machines.

For the guidance of intending foreign investors, the Government established, in April 1959, the Department of Investment Promotion. This department disseminates information regarding investment opportunities and conditions in Pakistan and offers advice to investors, both local and foreign.

All proposals for the setting up of industries involving foreign investment, foreign private loans must be approved by the Central Investment Promotion and Co-ordination Committee and must be within the framework of investment schedules. Normally decisions are taken within six to 12 weeks from first submission of the investment proposals in prescribed form.

All foreign firms and individuals intending to start commercial and professional business in Pakistan are also required to obtain prior permission from the department. Similarly, permission is also to be obtained before any foreign national can enter into partnership with a Pakistani national for the purpose of doing business in Pakistan.

The flow of foreign private investment has substantially increased in tempo in recent years. Up to June 1960, the total foreign private investment in the industrial sector in Pakistan was US $ 70 million. Since then, official figures indicate that the flow of foreign private capital into industry in Pakistan increased very substantially when the Second Plan (1960-65) was launched. Between July 1960 and June 1967 foreign private investment in industry totalled more than 137 million dollars.

In Karachi, the Overseas Investors Chamber of Commerce and Industry exists specifically as the representative trade association for foreign business in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan, the corresponding institution is the Agrabad Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Chittagong.

Trade Organizations: The country has about 70 major trade organizations, including 15 Chambers of Commerce and Industry.

All trade bodies are governed by the Trade Organization Ordinance, 1960 promulgated by the Central Government to streamline their working and to avoid multiplicity of rival trade associations. One of the objects was to bring the private entrepreneur on a common platform so that close liaison could be established between trade organizations and the Government in the interest of economic development. For this latter purpose, these trade organizations are asked to nominate their members to various advisory councils for import and export to represent their point of view.

The country's supreme trade body is the Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry with its head office in Karachi and with zonal offices at Lahore and Dacca.

The Federation represents, at home and abroad, the interest of private enterprise in almost all fields. Its principal objects are:

(i) To aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce, agriculture, industry and transport in Pakistan.

(ii) To promote and safeguard business in which Pakistanis and other nationals in Pakistan are engaged or interested in matters of inland and foreign trade, agriculture, transport industry, manufacture, finance and all other economic activities or to encourage banking, insurance and shipping.

(iii) To promote friendly relationship and unanimity of purpose among the various chambers of commerce and industry and commercial and industrial associations in Pakistan, and to help co-ordination among them and their counterparts in other countries of the world.

(iv) To secure organized action, direct or indirect, on all subjects mentioned above.

The management of the business of the Federation is vested in a 30-man Managing Committee. The President is elected by the general body at the annual general meeting through secret ballot. Seven chambers, three "A" class association and one "B" class association from East Pakistan are now represented in the Managing Committee.

The Federation also has three zonal committees headed by its vice-presidents in the regions of East and West Pakistan. The committees consist of:

(i) One representative each of the member body styled as chamber of commerce and industry, one representing trade and the other industry.

(ii) One representative from each of the member bodies styled as 'A' class association and of trade and/or industry.

RCD Chamber of Commerce: The RCD

Chamber of Commerce and Industry aims at fostering and developing intra-regional trade, promotion of investment opportunities within the RCD countries, promotion of co-operation between the RCD Chamber on the one hand and other international business, industrial and economic organizations on the other.

The chamber ascertains and represents the views of the private sector in the member countries on all economic matters affecting their common interests particularly in the fields of commerce, industry, transportation, finance and services industries and promotes commercial and industrial collaboration between the various enterprises in the member countries. It also assists in initiating negotiations between interested parties for joint ventures.

The membership of the RCD Chamber consists of one member body from each member country, as follows:

1. Iran: The Tehran Chamber of Commerce, the Iran Chamber of Industries and Mines;

2. Pakistan: The Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry;

3. Turkey: The Union of Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey.

The Pakistan National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce with its office in Karachi has the following objects:

(a) to facilitate the commercial intercourse of countries and secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce;
(b) to elect the representatives of the National Committee on the Council of the International Chamber; and
(c) to ensure the proper representation of commercial, industrial, financial, shipping and trading interests of Pakistan in the organization and work of the International Chamber.

The All-Pakistan Textile Mills Association which represents by far the largest number of industrial units has its registered office in Karachi.

Finance and Banking

PUBLIC finance is the chief instrument used by the Government to implement comprehensively formulated economic policies which aim at rapid growth and the reorganization of the socio-economic structure. The national financial year is from 1 July to 30 June and the Budget is usually announced by the Finance Minister in early June. All ministries of the Government take part in budget-making, but final shape to the Budget statement is given by the Ministry of Finance. After approval by the Cabinet, the Budget is presented to the National Assembly. Only new taxes and new expenditures require the approval of the legislature which is, of course, free to discuss all items of the Budget. The Public Accounts Committee of the National Assembly is empowered to scrutinize the annual statement of accounts prepared by the Auditor-General. Following consideration by the National Assembly, the Budget is submitted to the President for authentication.

The Budget consists of two important parts: revenue or current account and the capital account. The current account, financed by revenues from taxes, public enterprises, and other receipts, includes expenditure on defence, administration, debt servicing and social services. The capital account, financed by borrowing, miscellaneous capital receipts, accumulated balances and revenue account surplus, includes expenditure for the creation of economic assets of permanent value, that is, for the implementation of the national development programme.

The Constitution defines tax jurisdictions of the Central and Provincial Governments. The Centre is empowered to impose and collect (a) customs, (b) excise duties, (c) sales and purchase

taxes, (d) income and corporation taxes, (e) estate and succession duties, (f) tax on the capital value of assets excluding immovable property, (g) taxes on sea and air-traffic, and (h) taxes on natural gas, mineral oil and nuclear minerals. The Provincial list includes taxes on agricultural income, land and buildings, some duties excluded from central excise, stamp duties, vehicle tax and tolls on the movement of goods and some other levies. (Local bodies can enforce some of these taxes with the permission of the Provincial Governments).

A major source of revenue for the provinces is their share in the proceeds of certain Central taxes. The system of distribution of revenues between the Centre and the provinces has undergone certain changes during the last 20 years. Under the existing arrangements, 65 per cent of the proceeds from taxes on income, sales tax, excise duties on tea, tobacco and betel-nut as well as export duties on jute and cotton, goes to the provinces. Of the total provincial share of taxes on income, excise and export duties, 54 per cent is allocated to East Pakistan and 46 per cent to West Pakistan. Thirty per cent of the provincial share in sales tax is distributed on the basis of the collection ratio between the two provinces and the rest is, again, divided as in the case of other taxes, that is, 54 per cent to East Pakistan and 46 per cent to West Pakistan.

Important among the direct taxes are those on personal and company incomes exceeding Rs. 6,000 per annum. No discrimination is made between one tax payer and another on the basis of nationality, but the taxation laws provide for a number of concessions and reliefs to individuals as well as to companies. Many industries, whether owned by local or foreign capital, enjoy complete tax holiday for defined periods. The major sources of revenue are customs and excise duties and sales tax. Customs include the duties on imports of all goods at various rates and on the exports of raw cotton, raw jute and fresh fish. All excise duties are imposed by the Centre except those on narcotics and alcoholic liquors which fall within the jurisdiction of the provinces. A number of cottage industry products are exempt from excise duty, and reliefs have been provided for all goods exported. Sales tax is collected on all goods, whether imported or locally made. The steady increase in the revenues from excise duty and sales tax reflects the growth of industry.

The 1968-69 Budget estimate of revenue receipts stands at Rs. 6,889.3 million, an increase of 14 per cent over the revised estimate for 1967-68. An amount of Rs. 1,210.1 million has been earmarked for the provinces as their share of Central taxes, and Rs. 4,362.0 million have been provided for expenditure in the revenue account. Capital receipts for 1968-69 are estimated at Rs. 5,396.7 million — Rs. 2,961.9 million from internal sources, and Rs. 2,434.8 million from external sources, that is, foreign loans and credits. Expenditure in the capital account is estimated at Rs. 5,456.5 million, and the deficit of 59.8 million is to be met by the adjustment of customs duties and the refundable surcharge on income-tax.

The Budget envisages a net annual development programme of Rs. 5,700 million in the public sector. The prog-

ramme is to be financed to the extent of Rs. 3,120 million from internal resources and Rs. 2,580 million from external resources. For the implementation of provincial projects the Centre will provide Rs. 2,123.2 million to East Pakistan and Rs. 1,516.00 million to West Pakistan. East and West Pakistan are to contribute Rs. 513.8 million and Rs. 610.00 million respectively from their own resources.

Provincial Budget: The provincial budgets follow the pattern set by the Centre and their preparation is also similar. The capital and revenue accounts are financed to a considerable extent by transfers from the Centre in the form of tax share, grant-in-aid and loans. A large part of the revenue accounts is devoted to welfare services and civil works. The revenue structures of the two provinces are quite different, though land is a major source of receipts common to both. Separate budgets are prepared for the Railways in both provinces.

West Pakistan: The revenue estimate for 1968-69 stands at Rs. 2,008.5 million, and expenditure at Rs. 2,004.7 million. Total expenditure in the capital account is estimated at Rs. 1,654.5 million. No fresh tax was imposed in the Budget.

East Pakistan: Revenue receipts for 1968-69 are estimated at Rs. 1,444.00 million, and expenditure at Rs. 1,155.2 million. In the capital account Rs. 2,637.00 million have been provided for the annual development programme. A revenue surplus of Rs. 288.8 million is expected without any new taxes.

Monetary Management: The growing role of public finance and the development of industry have led to continuous monetary expansion. The monetary policy of the Government is of a flexible nature, aiming at monetary strength, price stabilization and accelerated economic development. Money supply, which includes all currency in circulation, is controlled to meet day-to-day requirements in accordance with the objectives of economic policies. In recent years greater reliance has been placed on monetary policy as a means to regulate the cost and availability of money and, at the same time, to exercise a healthy influence on the demand for and supply of goods. The non-monetized sector of the economy is witnessing a gradual reduction of size following abolition of economic controls and restricted deficit financing.

State Bank: Monetary management is the direct responsibility of the State Bank of Pakistan. The Bank, an autonomous institution, is required to regulate and foster the growth of monetary and credit system in the best national interest and help in the fuller utilization of the country's productive resources. The Government holds 51 per cent of the Bank's Rs. 30 million share capital. It is managed by a Governor and two Deputy Governors, appointed by the Government, with the help of a nine-man board of directors, four of whom are nominated by the Government and the rest elected by the shareholders. There are, in addition, three regional advisory boards — at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca. The Bank maintains four offices of issue at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore and Peshawar.

The State Bank operates the currency

and credit system, issues notes against assets, maintained in consultation with the Government, and administers the country's foreign exchange resources. The currency is fully backed by gold and approved foreign currency reserves, rupee coin and Government securities.

The Bank's instruments of monetary management include the Bank Rate, sale and purchase of securities in the open market, fixation and custody of the statutory reserves of commercial banks, enforcement of the liquidity ratio, selective credit controls and moral pursuasion. The Bank Rate, fixed in 1948 at 3 per cent, was raised to 4 per cent in 1959, and to 5 per cent in 1965. The cash reserve requirements of commercial banks have been changed from time to time, the present minimum being 5 per cent of total deposits. The commercial banks are also required to maintain 25 per cent of their assets in cash and unencumbered securities to safeguard liquidity.

The State Bank acts as banker and adviser to the Government and also as the bankers' bank. It is vested with wide powers to control the methods and policies of commercial banks with a view to ensuring sound banking and adequate credit facilities for the development of the economy. As an agent of the Government, the Bank allocates foreign exchange according to fixed priorities. It operates a Rural Credit Fund created out of its own profits, and has recently introduced an industrial credit scheme.

Banking: A wide network of institutional credit is provided by 76 commercial banks, scheduled and non-scheduled. The scheduled banks have a prescribed paid-up capital and reserve and fulfil other requirements laid down by the Government and the State Bank. The 35 scheduled banks in the country, of which 15 are Pakistani and 20 are foreign, held deposits amounting to Rs. 10,406 million as on 14 June, 1968. Their total credit stood at Rs. 9,733 million, the credit-deposit ratio being 84.17 per cent. The Pakistani banks' share of deposits was Rs. 9,058.8 million, their credit amounting to Rs. 7,425 million. Branch offices of Pakistani banks, as on 14 June 1968, numbered 2,425 out of a total of 2,502 with 34 foreign branches. The biggest four Pakistani banks are the National Bank of Pakistan, the Habib Bank, the United Bank and the Muslim Commercial Bank.

National Bank of Pakistan: The National Bank is the most important and largest commercial bank, and the Central Government holds 25 per cent of its share capital. Under the statute that governs the bank, Government exercises a measure of control over the bank and nominates three out of a total board of 12 directors, in addition to the Managing Director. The Government also nominates one of the directors to be President of the Board of Directors. As an agent of the State Bank, the bank handles treasury business, and undertakes special financing operations in connection with price stabilization, food procurement and development of small industries. Its advances under the People's Credit Scheme stood at Rs. 343.6 million in March 1968.

Co-operative Structure: The co-operative system, which meets the needs of the

agricultural sector, comprises primary societies, central unions and apex banks. State Bank loans are the main source of co-operative finance which is distributed through the apex banks. The total amount of State Bank loans to primary societies stood at Rs. 157.1 million in March 1968.

Specialized Credit: Four development corporations meet the long-term capital needs of industry, agriculture and housing. They are: Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC), Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan (IDBP), Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan (ADBP) and House Building Finance Corporation (HBFC). The Agricultural Development Bank and the Industrial Development Bank also function as commercial banks.

PICIC: The corporation has an authorized capital of Rs. 150 million. Over Rs. 16 million of its paid-up capital has been subscribed by American, British, Japanese and other investors and Rs. 24 million by Pakistani investors. Loans received by it from foreign countries and international agencies totalled Rs. 1,228.1 million on 31 March, 1968. It offers medium-term loans, in local and foreign currencies, and participates in the capital market. Its main function is to channel foreign loans negotiated by the Government to private enterprise.

PICIC's minimum lending limit is Rs. 1 million in foreign currency for a project to be established in East Pakistan. It is expected that the existing loan limit of Rs. 1.5 million will be lowered for new projects proposed for under-developed areas of West Pakistan. The limit for the balancing and modernization of an industrial unit is Rs. 250,000. Since its establishment up to March 1968, the corporation provided Rs. 1,377.1 million — Rs. 1,318.4 million in foreign currency and Rs. 58.7 million in Pakistani currency — to 592 projects. In addition, it invested Rs. 17.8 million in shares, underwrote shares worth Rs. 62.7 million, and specially arranged foreign loans amounting to Rs. 279.9 million for 14 projects.

IDBP: The bank has an authorized capital of Rs. 30 million which is fully subscribed, the majority of the shares being held by the Government. It administers foreign credit on behalf of the Government and provides long-term credit to small and medium industries up to a maximum of Rs. 2.5 million, including a foreign exchange component of Rs. 2 million. Up to March 1968, it provided Rs. 1,557.0 million — Rs. 1,170 million in foreign currency — to 3,287 projects.

ADBP: The bank, which has an authorized capital of Rs. 200 million and paid-up capital of Rs. 106 million, provides credit to agriculturists. Total loans up to March 1968 stood at Rs. 124.67 million.

HBFC: The corporation, established in 1952, has a share capital of Rs. 50 million entirely subscribed by the Government. It also raises funds by issuing bonds and debentures. Its loans to individuals and co-operative societies range between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 40,000 and up to March 1968 they numbered 24,902 and totalled Rs. 483.66 million.

Money Market: The main feature of the money market is inter-bank transactions. The call money rate (6.5 per cent) exceeds the Bank Rate, since the banking system depends more on its own resources than on borrowings from the State Bank. Some banks also discount bills of exchange with the support of the Bill Discounting Scheme of the State Bank. The capital market consists of the stock exchange and trading in bonds and securities. In the gilt-edged sectors the only participants are the State Bank, commercial banks, insurance companies, local bodies and public corporations. The insurance companies are required to maintain 40 per cent of their assets in the Government-approved securities and they also have substantial investments in the Stock Exchange.

Stock Exchange: Since it was organized in 1948 with 13 companies on its list, the Stock Exchange at Karachi has greatly expanded. There are now 220 companies registered at the Stock Exchange with ordinary shares, preference shares and convertible shares. The Government has recently adopted measures to ensure smooth functioning and growth of the Stock Exchange as an effective channel of investment.

ICP: The Investment Corporation of Pakistan, established in 1966 with an authorized capital of Rs. 200 million and a paid-up capital of Rs. 50 million—provided by seven scheduled banks and insurance companies — finances, manages and distributes the issue of stocks, debentures, bonds and securities. The Government has given it a long-term loan of Rs. 100 million. The Chairman, Managing Director and four directors of the corporation are appointed by the Government while five directors are elected by the shareholders.

NIT: The National Investment Trust, established by the Government in association with four banks, two industrial finance institutions, the Insurance Corporation and three leading industrialists, promotes savings and invests them in shares. Its twofold purpose is to broaden the base of industrial investment and also to help stabilize the Stock Exchange. It is authorized to subscribe for 20 per cent of any new floatations if it so desires. The Managing Director is appointed by the Government. The Trust fund is divided into units which are sold to the public. The units represent a proportionate fraction of the value of the trust property and they are encashable at any time. Up to March 1968, the total share investments of the Trust stood at Rs. 110 million.

Insurance: The insurance law prescribes a minimum paid-up capital of Rs. 1 million and a minimum working capital of Rs. 50,000 for an insurance company. Life insurance companies may invest 60 per cent of their life funds in approved bonds and securities, the limit for others is 40 per cent. Of the 73 companies registered in Pakistan, 41 are foreign — 21 incorporated in UK, five in the USA, three in New Zealand, and one each in Canada, France and Hong Kong. Two of them do life business exclusively, one does life as well as general business, and 38 do general business only. Ten of the 40 Pakistani companies are engaged exclusively in life business, 21 are engaged both in life as well as general business, and nine do general business only.

Pakistan Insurance Corporation: Established in 1953, the corporation has a paid-up capital of Rs. 5 million, 51 per cent subscribed by the Government, and 49 per cent by the insurance companies and general public. Its responsibilities include: development of insurance industry, provision of re-insurance facilities, and administration of the National Coinsurance Scheme (NCS) and the Export Credit Guarantee Scheme. The corporation also manages the War Risks Insurance Schemes of the Government. The corporation, as Secretary to the NCS, underwrites the business emanating from Government and semi-Government institutions, which is distributed among the national companies.

ECGS: The Export Credit Guarantee Scheme extends insurance cover for all exports which includes commercial as well as political risks. The scheme meets 75 per cent of the losses on commercial account and 85 per cent of the losses on account of political risks.

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TABLE I

Revenue Receipts of the Central Government since 1957-58

(in million Rs.)

Years	Tax receipts			Other Revenues	Total	
	Gross collection	Share of provinces	Net		Gross receipts	Net receipts
1957-58	1,301.4	253.1	1,048.3	476.7	1,778.1	1,525.0
1958-59 (15 months)	1,746.1	356.0	1,390.1	568.5	2,314.6	1,958.6
1959-60	1,327.3	291.8	1,035.5	578.6	1,905.9	1,614.1
1960-61	1,944.2	373.9	1,570.3	551.0	2,495.2	2,121.3
1961-62	2,180.5	432.4	1,748.1	523.1	2,703.6	2,271.2
1962-63	2,346.6	719.3	1,627.3	327.8	2,674.4	1,955.1
1963-64	2,842.6	886.4	1,956.2	875.0	3,717.6	2,831.2
1964-65	3,437.5	920.0	2,517.5	784.7	4,222.2	3,301.0
1965-66	3,917.3	1,070.0	2,835.0	962.4	4,879.7	3,797.9
1966-67	4,603.8	1,224.1	3,379.7	1,095.5	5,699.3	4,475.2
1967-68 (Revised)	4,805.7	1,118.5	3,687.2	1,239.8	6,045.5	4,927.0
1968-69 (Budget)	5,508.3	1,210.1	4,298.2	1,381.0	6,889.3	5,679.2

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE II

Revenue Collections under main tax heads

(in million Rs.)

Year	Customs	Central Excise	Corporation and Income tax	Sales Tax	Other taxes and duties	Total
1957-58	463.8	233.8	285.2	267.6	51.0	1,301.4
1958-59 (15 months)	545.3	322.4	479.8	334.5	64.1	1,746.1
1959-60	509.3	287.4	304.8	164.2	61.6	1,327.3
1960-61	620.5	401.1	383.8	467.1	72.4	1,944.2
1961-62	736.5	397.7	449.4	480.0	116.9	2,180.5
1962-63	762.4	506.7	507.8	523.2	46.5	2,346.6
1963-64	786.7	716.4	580.2	675.5	83.8	2,842.6
1964-65	1,078.3	816.1	659.0	705.9	178.2	3,437.5
1965-66	1,075.7	985.4	722.7	789.1	344.4	3,917.3
1966-67	1,275.0	1,492.5	794.8	868.2	173.3	4,603.8
1967-68 (Revised)	1,280.0	1,897.5	810.0	670.6	147.6	4,805.7
1968-69 (Budget)	1,428.0	2,268.3	890.0	746.0	176.0	5,508.3

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE III

CENTRAL BUDGET AT A GLANCE

A. Revenue Budget

(in millions Rs.)

	1967-68 Budget	1967-68 Revised	1968-69 Budget*
Receipts:			
Customs	1,469.1	1,280.0	1,428.0
Central Excise Duties	1,891.3	1,897.5	2,268.3
Income Tax and Corporation Tax	853.5	810.0	890.0
Sales Tax	804.9	670.6	746.0
Interest Receipts	731.0	745.2	844.9
Currency and Mint	72.4	72.1	77.1
Post Office (net)	7.5	5.9	5.0
Telegraph and Telephone (net)	106.3	101.3	128.6
Defence Services	110.0	99.6	104.3
Other Revenue	323.3	363.3	397.1
TOTAL—RECEIPTS	6,369.3	6,045.5	6,889.3
Expenditure:			
Revenue Collecting Departments	63.7	59.3	66.2
Civil Administration	499.2	490.3	524.1
Defence Services	2,180.0	2,230.0	2,450.0
Civil Works and Central Road Fund	42.3	39.1	43.8
Interest Payments	620.2	622.7	774.5
Grants to Provincial Governments (Non-Development)	40.0	183.0	40.0
Other Non-Development Expenditure	151.8	189.1	191.3
Development Expenditure—			
Grants to Provincial Governments	380.5	470.6	418.3
Other Development Expenditure	132.1	110.5	142.5
Less: Development Expenditure met from Foreign Aid and Reserve Funds	—307.5	—352.6	—288.7
TOTAL—EXPENDITURE	3,802.3	4,042.0	4,362.0
Add: Revenue Assignments to Provinces	1,327.3	1,118.5	1,210.1
Revenue Surplus	1,239.7	885.0	1,317.2
TOTAL	6,369.3	6,045.5	6,889.3

*The budget estimates for 1968-69 are based on existing taxation and do not include the effect of new proposals.

B. Capital Budget

(in million Rs.)

	1967-68 Budget	1967-68 Revised	1968-69 Budget
Development Expenditure:			
Direct Outlay by the Central Government—			
Irrigation	724.7	432.4	583.2
Post Office	13.5	13.5	13.8
Telegraph and Telephone	170.0	170.0	164.4
Industrial Development	25.4	21.6	18.1
Civil Aviation	95.6	92.7	83.6
Broadcasting	26.0	24.7	24.7
Ports	31.5	24.6	41.6
New Federal Capitals	140.0	132.0	108.9
Civil Works	53.0	49.9	36.5
Food Storage and Other Works	162.8	162.7	158.2
Miscellaneous Investments	65.3	63.0	118.0
Other Expenditure	11.5	9.7	10.6
Total	1,519.3	1,196.8	1,361.6
Loans to Semi-Independent Bodies, etc.	24.8	24.8	27.1
Loans and Grants to Provincial Governments	3,139.1	2,555.1	3,163.7
TOTAL—DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE	4,683.2	3,776.7	4,552.4
Loans to Private Sector	..	184.1	149.0
Non-Development Expenditure	433.0	412.2	555.1
Contingency Item	150.0	50.0	200.0
Cash Balance Improvement	5.5	..	..
TOTAL—DISBURSEMENTS	5,271.7	4,423.0	5,456.5
Financed from—			
Revenue Surplus	1,239.7	885.0	1,317.2
Debt raised in Pakistan (net)	366.0	335.0	360.0
Foreign Loans & Grants	2,406.4	2,287.8	2,434.8
Floating Debt (net)	18.8	103.9	170.2
Unfunded Debt (net)	184.8	120.6	150.8
Recoveries of Loans and Advances	218.4	212.8	300.8
Accretions to Reserve Funds	475.6	344.5	411.5
Other Deposits and Remittances (net)	191.8	37.7	137.4
Other Capital Receipts	170.2	43.0	114.0
Use of Cash Balance	..	52.7	59.8
TOTAL—RESOURCES	5,271.7	4,423.0	5,456.5

Source: Annual Budget Statement.

TABLE IV

STATEMENT OF AFFAIRS OF THE STATE BANK OF PAKISTAN
AS ON 14TH JUNE, 1968

A. Banking Department

Liabilities	Rs.	Assets	Rs.
Capital paid-up	30,000,000	Notes	94,246,000
Reserve Fund	147,500,000	Rupee Coin	21,000
Rural Credit Fund	75,000,000	Subsidiary Coin	105,000
Industrial Credit Fund	30,000,000	Bills purchased and discounted:	
		(a) Internal	819,493,000
Deposits:		(b) External	—
(a) Central Government	119,815,000	(c) Government Treasury Bills	65,419,000
(b) Provincial Governments	4,847,000		
(c) Banks	660,151,000	Balances held outside Pakistan (including cash and short term securities)	65,744,000
(d) Others	1,487,283,000		
Bills Payable	1,429,000	Loans and Advances to Government	170,100,000
Other Liabilities	358,925,000	Provincial Governments' Debtor Balances	36,699,000
		Other Loans and Advances	737,555,000
		Investments	614,293,000
		Other Assets	311,275,000
Rupees	2,914,950,000	Rupees	2,914,950,000

B. Issue Department

Liabilities	Rs.	Rs.		Assets	Rs.	Rs.
Notes held in the Banking Department	94,246,000		I-. A.	Gold Coin and Bullion	252,939,000	
Notes in circulation	5,878,352,000			Silver Bullion	—	
Total Notes issued		5,972,598,000		Approved Foreign Exchange	611,693,000	
				India notes representing assets receivable from the Reserve Bank of India	273,154,000	1,137,786,000
			B.	Rupee Coin	97,016,000	
				Government of Pakistan Securities	4,289,845,000	
				Internal Bills of Exchange and other commercial paper	400,000,000	4,786,861,000
			II.	Held with the Reserve Bank of India pending transfer to Pakistan:		
				Gold Coin and Bullion	1,902,000	
				Sterling Securities	37,768,000	
				Government of India Securities	6,407,000	
				Rupee Coin	1,874,000	47,951,000
Total Liabilities		5,972,598,000		Total Assets		5,972,598,000

Source: State Bank of Pakistan.

TABLE V

STATEMENT OF THE POSITION OF SCHEDULED BANKS AS ON 14TH JUNE, 1968

1. *Demand Liabilities in Pakistan*:	
(i) Deposits (General)	4,326,745,000
(ii) Deposits from banks	312,383,000
(iii) Borrowings from banks	194,550,000
(iv) Other demand liabilities	312,099,000
2. *Time Liabilities in Pakistan*:	
(i) Deposits (General)	5,590,882,000
(ii) Deposits from banks	42,179,000
(iii) Borrowings from banks	4,100,000
(iv) Other time liabilities	176,493,000
3. *Borrowings from the State Bank of Pakistan*:	
(a) Against Usance Bills	816,181,000
(b) Against Promissory Notes	707,355,000
(c) Against approved securities	334,067,000
(d) Other borrowings	30,773,000
4. *Cash in Pakistan*:	
(a) Pakistan Notes	217,250,000
(b) Pakistan Rupee Coin	15,433,000
(c) Pakistan Subsidiary Coin	4,948,000
5. *Balances with the State Bank*:	
(a) Principal Office	356,802,000
(b) Other Offices and Branches	220,262,000
6. Balances with other banks in current account in Pakistan	69,573,000
7. Money at Call and Short Notice in Pakistan	355,198,000
8. *Investments (At Book Value)*:	
(a) In Central Government Securities including Treasury Bills	1,609,793,000
(b) In Provincial Government Securities including Treasury Bills	574,218,000
(c) In other approved securities	431,855,000
(d) In others	152,631,000
9. *Credit Provided in Pakistan*:	
(i) Advances except those to other banks	9,148,664,000
(ii) Advances to other banks	100,740,000
(iii) Inland Bills Purchased and Discounted in Pakistan	249,755,000
(iv) Foreign Bills Purchased and Discounted in Pakistan	212,674,000
(v) Inland Bills sold to or rediscounted with the State Bank of Pakistan not yet matured and not included in (iii) above	9,030,000
(vi) Foreign Bills sold to or rediscounted with the State Bank of Pakistan not yet matured and not included in (iv) above	12,608,000

Source: State Bank of Pakistan.

TABLE VI

1968-69 BUDGET HIGHLIGHTS

	(in million Rs.)
Revenue receipts	6,889.3
Revenue Expenditure	4,362.0
(Defence Expenditure 2,450.0)	
Provincial share	1,210.1
Surplus	1,317.2
Capital receipts	5,396.7
(Internal resources 2,961.9)	
(External resources 2,434.8)	
Capital Expenditure	5,456.5
(Development programme 5,700.0)	
Deficit	59.8
Yield from tax adjustments	63.1

Foreign Trade and Balance of Payments

The first basic principle of the commercial policy of Pakistan is the scientific allocation of foreign exchange resources for the import of raw materials and capital goods vital to the growth of the economy. The second is the promotion of exports with a view to raising the level of foreign exchange earnings, improving the balance of payments, and reducing dependence on foreign aid for the implementation of the development plan.

Diversification of foreign trade is another important principle of policy. A serious effort is being made to find new sources of supplies as well as export markets. This has been necessitated partly by unsatisfactory terms of trade offered in the traditional markets and partly by the growth of industry. Diversification will make it possible to ensure better prices for the primary products of Pakistan, to obtain capital goods at the lowest possible prices, and to enlarge the scope of manufactured exports.

The balance of trade continues to be adverse for more than one reason. First, the development programme necessitates heavy imports as inputs. Secondly, exports, though steadily rising, have yet to acquire volume and stability. Thirdly, the prices of foreign capital goods are constantly increasing while the prices of Pakistan's primary products are subject to extreme fluctuations in the world market. Fourthly, the country has been importing large quantities of food to meet recurring deficits.

The import policy, formulated on a half-yearly basis and characterized by indirect controls, is biased in favour of industry, consumer as well as basic, and

also serves the purpose of tariff protection. Imports are categorized under different heads:

— *Free List* includes items which may be imported without a licence from the Government.

— *Licensable List* includes items which require an import licence.

— *Bonus List* includes items which may be imported without a licence against Bonus Vouchers earned on exports or bought from the market.

— *Cash-cum-Bonus List* includes items for which the importers have to pay partly in cash and partly in Bonus Vouchers.

— *Export Performance Licensing List* includes items for which import licences are given to exporting manufacturers.

— *Licence to Actual Users List* includes technical and scientific books and laboratory equipment required by professional individuals or learned institutions.

The export policy consists of several measures designed to encourage, facilitate and enlarge exports:

— *Export Bonus Scheme*, introduced in 1959, under which a foreign exchange bonus is granted on all exports except raw jute, raw cotton, cotton waste and linters, hides and skins, tea, rice and fish. The scheme was mainly responsible for the annual increase in exports at the rate of 8 per cent between 1960 and 1968 and an annual increase of 20 per cent in exports of manufactures during the same period.

— *Export Credit Guarantee Scheme*, introduced in 1962, which protects against commercial and political risks run by the exporters. The scheme covers 75 per cent of the losses on account of commercial risk and 85 per cent of the losses on account of political risk.

— *Export Market Development Fund*, created in 1966, finances projects relating to the survey of foreign markets, designing of products, opening of display centres and information offices abroad, exchange of delegations, organization of exhibitions, liberal import licensing for export oriented industries and credit facilities for exporters.

The Trading Corporation of Pakistan, established in 1967, serves as commission agent for importers and exporters to arrange big transactions, especially with socialist countries.

The Export Promotion Bureau of the Ministry of Commerce, created in 1963, is the high-powered body which deals with the problems of export trade. It also co-ordinates activities of various official and unofficial organizations concerned with such commodities as jute, cotton, tea, and tobacco.

The composition of export-import trade is gradually changing. The ratio of consumer goods in imports was only 23 per cent in 1966-67, despite heavy purchases of food-grains, industrial raw materials and capital goods accounting for 77 per cent. This was a vast improvement over the import pattern of 10 years ago. Similarly, while exports of food and raw materials have not generally declined, the share of manufactures has risen from 28.2 per cent in 1959-60 to 45 per cent in 1967-68.

The balance of payments position has been under some strain for the past three years. There is a chronic deficit on current account, which is offset mainly by long-term loans on capital account and transfer payments. The current account deficit is to a considerable extent the result of food and development imports. These imports are expected to decline as the country achieves self-sufficiency in food, and implements some of its major development projects. The present policy aims at increasing the production of exportable products and import substitutes as quickly as possible in order to reduce the requirements of foreign aid and to build up a self-sustaining economy. The immediate objective, however, is to ensure the level of capital inflow necessary to finance the development programme.

TABLE I

Balance of Trade

(In million rupees)

Year (July-June)	Imports	Exports	Balance
1961-62	3,109.1	1,843.4	1,265.7
1964-65	5,374.2	2,407.7	2,966.5
1965-66	4,208.3	2,717.7	1,490.6
1966-67	5,267.5	2,912.7	2,354.8
1967-68	4,654.8	3,348.2	1,306.6

Exports include re-exports.
Source: Statistical Bulletin, September, 1968.

TABLE II

Major Exports[1]

(In million rupees)

Commodity	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68*
A. Primary Products:				
Raw jute	845.4	863.2	870.2	758.9
Raw cotton	287.0	278.4	290.6	441.8
Hides and skins	35.3	30.4	11.6	7.0
Raw wool	58.7	60.4	31.5	37.0
Tea	10.1	11.0	.8	0.2
Fish	85.0	47.7	60.8	53.4
Rice	120.3	132.5	175.9	149.4
Other primary products	137.0	181.3	156.9	210.0
Total	1,578.8	1,604.9	1,598.3	1,657.7
B. *Manufactures*:				
Cotton yarn and piece goods	272.2	254.2	276.9	461.5
Jute manufactures	300.7	572.5	581.0	617.1
Leather and leather goods	58.7	100.7	128.1	128.0
Other manufactures	185.0	158.7	286.6	260.2
Total	816.6	1,086.1	1,272.6	1,466.8
GRAND TOTAL	2,395.4	2,691.0	2,870.9	3,124.5

1 Excludes re-exports

*Provisional.

It is also to be noted that in 1967-68 West Pakistan's export earnings for the first time rose to over 50 per cent of the total export earnings (Rs. 1,645 million representing 53 per cent). In 1960-61 East Pakistan's share in total export earnings had been 70 per cent, and in 1964-65, 53 per cent.

Source: Central Statistical Office.

TABLE III

Major Imports

(In million rupees)

Item	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Chemicals	107.5	54.6	99.2	86.1
Drugs and medicines	115.8	71.4	81.6	76.2
Electrical goods	329.1	314.1	302.1	302.0
Dyes and colours	117.6	64.4	87.6	62.2
Machinery	935.5	933.1	962.1	1,065.0
Paper and stationery	46.3	51.4	73.8	51.9
Rubber manufactures	69.8	40.1	43.6	38.6
Transport equipment	537.1	466.5	467.1	407.0
Iron and steel and manufactures	877.8	475.8	636.6	412.4
Non-ferrous metals and manufactures	106.2	68.6	152.7	181.3
Mineral oils	125.5	147.0	259.1	245.5
Vegetable oils	204.7	160.6	94.4	144.2
Grains, pulses & flour	680.3	368.9	770.7	620.4
Other imports	1,121.0	991.8	1,161.7	962.0
Total	5,374.2	4,208.3	5,192.3	4,654.8

Source: Central Statistical Office.

TABLE IV

Bonus Exports during 1959-67

(In million rupees)

Year	Amount	% Increase
1959	551.6	—
1960	665.2	20.6
1961	724.7	8.9
1962	775.9	7.1
1963	889.4	14.6
1964	1,007.9	13.3
1965	1,078.3	7.0
1966	1,461.9	36.0
1967	1,498.3	2.5

TABLE V

Balance of Payments

(In million rupees)

Item	1965-66			1966-67			1967-68 (July—Dec)		
	Credit	Debit	Net Credit	Credit	Debit	Net Credit	Credit	Debit	Net Credit
A. *Goods and services*	3,200.6	5,505.7	—2,305.1	3,283.0	6,332.4	—3,049.4	1,497.6	3,258.2	—1,760.5
1. Merchandise	2,686.8	4,365.7	—1,678.9	2,752.3	4,981.2	—2,228.9	1,238.6	2,605.9	—1,367.3
2. Non-Monetary Gold	.7	—	+.7	—	—	—	.1	—	+.1
3. Freight and Insurance on International Shipments	21.8	401.6	—379.8	9.8	467.7	—457.9	1.6	250.6	—249.1
(i) Freight	18.1	381.4	—363.3	6.8	439.2	—432.4	1.1	236.6	—235.6
(ii) Insurance	3.6	20.2	—16.6	3.0	28.5	—25.5	.5	14.0	—13.5
4. Other Transportation	70.9	69.4	+1.5	75.4	99.9	—24.5	43.5	41.5	+2.0
5. Travel	10.3	27.3	—17.0	11.8	48.9	—37.1	12.7	19.9	—7.2
6. Investment Income	43.4	297.3	—253.9	52.5	297.0	—244.5	19.6	159.6	—139.9
7. Government, not included elsewhere	168.9	205.2	—36.3	176.4	302.0	—125.6	58.4	92.8	—34.3
8. Other services	197.6	139.4	+58.2	204.7	135.6	+69.1	123.0	87.8	+35.2
(i) Non-Merchandise insurance	11.5	10.3	+1.2	5.7	13.4	—7.7	2.2	14.5	—12.2
(ii) Others	186.1	129.1	+57.0	199.0	122.3	+76.7	120.8	73.3	+47.5
B. *Transfer payments*	1,090.6	32.5	+1,058.1	1,036.3	30.2	+1,006.1	740.1	14.1	—726.0
9. Private	214.0	31.7	+182.3	203.1	30.2	+172.9	128.7	14.1	+114.6
10. Central Government	876.7	.8	+875.9	833.2	—	+833.2	611.4	—	+611.4

Item	Change in Assets	Change in Liabilities	Net Position	Change in Assets	Change in Liabilities	Net Position	Change in Assets	Change in Liabilities	Net Position
C. Capital and monetary gold	—355.2	—1,586.7	+1,231.6	+401.8	—1,694.3	+2,096.1	+233.0	—882.3	+1,115.3
11. Private long-term (including all direct Investment)	—	—175.0	+175.0	+5.1	—240.9	+246.0	+2.9	—109.3	+112.2
12. Private short-term (other than direct investment)	—	—18.5	+18.5	..	—.1	+.1	+.2	+2.1	—2.0
13. Local Government	—	+13.0	—13.0	—	—15.8	+15.8	—	—33.9	+33.9
14. Central Government	—29.9	—1,168.8	+1,138.9	—30.6	—1,439.1	+1,408.5	+59.1	—639.8	+698.9
(i) Long-term loans	—	—1,168.8	+1,168.8	—	—1,439.1	+1,439.1	—	—639.8	+639.8
(ii) Other long-term assets and liabilities	+18.5	—	+18.5	—56.7	—	—56.7	+72.4	—	+72.4
(iii) Other short-term assets and liabilities	—48.5	—	—48.5	+26.2	—	+26.2	—13.4	—	—13.4
15. Central Monetary Institutions	—434.5	—359.8	—74.6	+414.5	+11.1	+403.4	+17.7	—6.5	+24.3
(i) Accounts with I.M.F.	—181.0	—359.5	+178.5	—	+9.1	—9.1	—	—1.3	+1.3
(ii) Marketable assets	—219.5	—	—219.5	+412.2	—	+412.2	+70.8	—	+70.8
(iii) Deposits	—33.3	—.3	—33.0	+2.2	+2.0	+.2	—52.9	—5.3	—47.6
(iv) Gold	—.7	—	—.7	..	—	..	.1	—	.1
16. Other Monetary Institutions	+109.2	+122.4	—13.2	+12.9	—9.5	+22.3	+153.2	—95.0	+248.1
(i) Deposits	—45.4	+119.1	—164.5	+64.4	+5.5	+69.9	—28.2	—91.3	+63.1
(ii) Other foreign assets and liabilities	+154.6	+3.3	+151.3	—51.6	—4.0	—47.6	+181.3	—3.7	+184.9
D. 17. Errors and Omissions	+15.5	—	+15.5	—52.8	—	—52.8	—80.8	—	—80.8
E. 18. Multilateral Settlements	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

.. Amount less than Rs. 50,000. —nil.

Source: State Bank of Pakistan. —Economic Survey 1967-68.

Note: Pakistan adopted the compilation of balance of payments in accordance with the revised I.M.F. manual (1961 edition) in July 1964

Total may exhibit small difference due to rounding off.

International Economic Co-operation

The underdeveloped economies, in which three-fourths of the world's people live, require the help of foreign resources to break the vicious circle of low income, low investment and low production inherited from a long period of economic stagnation. In formulating its development plans, Pakistan places considerable reliance on foreign economic assistance to reach the 'take-off' stage of self-sustained economic growth as soon as possible. The loan portion of such assistance naturally imposes a burden on the country's balance of payment; but so long as such assistance is obtained on reasonable terms (Pakistan is paying interest at an average rate of only 2.5 per cent on outstanding external credits.) and is judiciously utilized, it also helps to develop the capacity to earn more foreign exchange and thus reduce this burden. The situation is similar to that of a good commercial or industrial enterprise which borrows capital to enlarge the scope of its business or production and is able to pay both interest and capital by proper amortization in the course of its expansion.

The term foreign economic aid is here used to cover all types of unilateral transfer, generally comprising: private foreign capital, various types of loans — including those repayable in local currency, untied loans, loans tied by country — money grants, commodity grants and export credits of more than a certain duration. The inclusion of private capital as aid is justified because of the valuable foreign exchange and technical experience it brings into a developing economy. Apart from the obvious non-commercial aspect of public loans, many of them have a significant grant element and some border on grants. It has been calculated that the loans advanced during 1967 by

member countries of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development had a 50 per cent grant element.

Aid received by Pakistan may be divided into four broad categories:

i) project aid compising mainly capital goods and other machinery for the implementation of development projects;
ii) technical assistance which provides the services of experts, consultants, training facilities for Pakistanis and equipment for training, demonstration and research purposes;
iii) non-project or commodity aid comprising mainly raw materials, machinery and accessories for existing industries; chemical fertilizers and agricultural machinery; food grains, including the well known Public Law (PL) 480 shipments from the U.S.A., other essential supplies and emergency aid in natural disasters;
iv) counterpart funds in rupees generated by the sale of U.S. and Canadian commodities which are used to meet the rupee cost of agreed development projects.

Beginnings and Sources of Aid: Pakistan has been receiving foreign economic aid since the commencement of the Colombo Plan in 1950. The first grant assistance agreement with the U.S.A. was signed on February 2, 1951; and the first loan agreement was signed on March 27, 1952, for $27.2 million with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), popularly also referred to as the World Bank. Since then sources of assistance have been expanding, and while the United States and the Pakistan Consortium (Aid-to-Pakistan Club) contribute the major share of foreign assistance, aid received from socialist countries in the form of soft loans, has been increasing rapidly in recent years, following the first USSR offer of credit in 1960, amounting to 27 million roubles ($30 million) for oil exploration, and the first Chinese aid in February 1965 of an interest-free loan of $60 million. However, the proportion of grant assistance has been declining, and at present only technical assistance and emergency relief is provided on a grant basis. A classification of grant and loan assistance between 1950 and 1967 is given in Table I and, according to sources of assistance, in Table II. Next to the United States, the biggest grant comes from Canada and the biggest loan from Germany (currently repayable over 20 years at an interest rate of only 3 per cent).

Foreign assistance covered about 42.5 per cent of the total expenditure of Rs. 10,800 million envisaged in the First Five-Year Plan and 48.6 per cent of the total expenditure of Rs. 23,000 million envisaged in the Second Five-Year Plan. For the Third Five-Year Plan, the absolute figure of foreign assistance expected rose to an all-time high of Rs. 16,500 million ($3,500 million), but in percentage terms this amounted to less than 32 per cent of the the envisaged total expenditure of Rs. 52,000 million. The total pledges made during the first three years of the Third Plan, including the uncommitted pledges carried forward from the Second Plan, amount to less than $1,883 million. Of this, $1,404 million has been pledged through the consortium, $72 million by Consortium

countries outside the Consortium allocations. The total pledges made during the first three years fall short of the Plan estimate of $ 1,650 million for this period by about 9 per cent, but this amount is more than made up by the uncommitted pledges available at the beginning of the Plan period. Furthermore, while only 40 per cent of the Plan expectation of $2,700 million from Consortium countries was fulfilled, from non-Consortium countries $381 million has been received in comparison with a total expectation of no more than $150 million. The position of pledges by lending countries and agencies is detailed in Table III.

Estimates of foreign loans and grants in foreign exchange, by regional allocations, for 1967-68 and 1968-69 are given in Table IV, with actuals for 1966-67.

Consortium and Non-Consortium Sources: At present most foreign economic assistance is channelled through the Pakistan Consortium organized in 1960 by the World Bank. It consists of Belgium, Canada, the U.K., the U.S.A., the World Bank and the International Development Association, which is an affiliate of the World Bank.

The Consortium members generally meet once a year to take stock of Pakistan's implementation of its development programme and next year's requirements of foreign exchange. On the basis of this, they decide the volume of assistance that its members are prepared to offer, and this offer is known as a 'pledge'. Later, each member country individually selects the projects it would like to finance and settles the terms for financing these projects through bilateral agreements with Pakistan. The sum thus agreed constitutes a 'commitment'. Implementation of the projects begins after commitment agreements, and the disbursement of funds follows.

The United States has provided the largest volume of economic assistance, and its total obligations up to June 30, 1968, amount to about $4,000 million, exceeding the combined total for all other sources. This help has come from a variety of agencies, funds and private foundations, including the Agency for International Development (AID), the Development Loan Fund (whose dollar loans are repayable in rupees), the Export Bank of Washington (Exim Bank, which has helped finance the Inter-Continental hotels in Pakistan and foreign exchange requirements of small-scale industries through the Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan), the Ford Foundation (which has provided significant grant assistance particularly in the field of education and research), and PL 480, about which a little more needs to be said because of its unique nature.

The PL 480 programme covers imports of surplus US agricultural commodities provided by or through the U. S. Department of Agriculture — Title I provisions of this programme comprise sales against payment in rupees; Title II, emergency grants and sales, including Ocean freight paid by AID; Title III, relief grants, handled by four voluntary distributing agencies. However, from the year 1967-68 a portion of the cost of PL 480 under Title I will have to be paid for in dollars, instalments being due 10 years after the date of the last delivery of commodities in each calendar year.

The outstanding amount carries interest at 2 per cent during the first 10 years and 2.5 per cent during the next 30 years. In 1967-68 Pakistan has concluded agreements for the purchase of agricultural surpluses in convertible local currency credit and local currency terms for a total of $175.1 million. Apart from 8 per cent of the Pakistan rupee payments to be used for U.S. expenditure, the remainder is made available as grants (22 per cent) and loans (70 per cent) for economic development programmes in Pakistan. Commodity imports for 1967-68 are given in Table V.

Non-Consortium countries negotiate aid and loan agreements on an entirely bilateral basis. Following initial talks, they conclude 'frame agreements' pledging the assistance they are prepared to offer; then they select projects and make commitments to finance them. Some Consortium countries also conclude similar agreements outside the framework of the Consortium. Headed by the U.S.S.R., Yugoslavia and China, the socialist countries are most prominent in the non-Consortium sources. Also included among these sources is another affiliate of the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation (IFC), which in all its Pakistani investments associates itself with the Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation.

External Indebtedness: The total external debt contracted, disbursed and outstanding, both in the public and the private sectors up to December 31, 1967, is summarized in Table VI.

The character of the external debt varies from such interest-free loans as those of Denmark and China and soft loans of the IDA (service charge of 0.75 per cent) at one extreme to short-term suppliers' or export credits at the other. Some of these credits are for short periods of 5 to 7 years and carry high interest rates of up to 6.75 per cent. Pakistan's external debt mostly comprises government to government loans. During the First Plan, while the proportion of export credits was high, the amount was relatively small. During the Second Plan period, the proportion of export credits fell to 14 per cent, but it again went up to about 26 per cent in the first two years of the Third Plan. This is a logical consequence of Pakistan's policy of diversification of the sources of foreign assistance, as East European credits are available mostly in the form of export credits, which are soft in the sense that at least 50 per cent of their amounts can be repaid in goods. The average of interest paid by Pakistan on outstanding external credits amounts to no more than 2.5 per cent — with 23.5 per cent of the total interest at between 0 to 1 per cent, another 13.5 per cent at over 1 to 3 per cent, 11.9 per cent at over 3 to 5 per cent, and 41.1 per cent at over 5 per cent on external credits contracted up to June 30, 1967. The amortization period for nearly 54 per cent of these credits is over 25 years and of about 21 per cent up to 10 years. The remainder are for varying periods between these two extremes.

The future of the climate of foreign economic assistance seems to be becoming less and less favourable. While the sources of foreign aid for Pakistan have multiplied, it is symbolic of the prevalent situation that in 1968 the World Bank, through two raises of

0.25 per cent each, increased its rate of interest from 6 to 6.5 per cent (the Bank itself secures loans from major world capital markets at 5.5 per cent interest). And at the end of November 1968, in a state of crisis for the financial world, it was contemplating a further increase of 0.5 to 1.0 per cent, with a possible rise in its interest rate of up to 7.5 per cent. It was also feared that the World Bank's lending might be cut drastically and that the terms for loans would become significantly harder.

The proportion of foreign exchange earnings absorbed by the debt service (amortization as well as interest) is presently about 13 per cent as against 3.6 per cent in 1960-61; but it remains within the capacity of the expanding economy of the country. This has been made possible by the recent rate of export growth, which is one of the most favouable trends in the economy and in no small measure due to the increased production realized through the proper utilization of loans. Table VII gives details of the position.

The Government's policy to maximize exports is not limited to maintaining the ability to repay loans; it also aims at reducing the requirement of external loans. It is for both these reasons that Pakistan has played a prominent part in the United Nations Conference of Trade and Development (UNCTAD) where efforts are being made to secure better terms of trade for the underdeveloped from the developed countries. Without such improved facilities, with which the consumer products, as well as the raw materials, of the former can find fair markets in the latter, the gap between rich and poor nations will continue to widen and the poor will remain in a condition of indebtedness so long as they have to continue to import most of their capital goods.

International Technical Assistance: The United Nation's aid to the less-developed countries began in 1948, under a programme of technical assistance. In 1950, it was supplemented by the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance which involved agencies like UNESCO, ILO, WHO, FAO and UNICEF.

UN Development Programme (*UNDP*): As on January 1, 1968, the UNDP had earmarked $14.195 million for 14 pre-investment projects and $2.722 million for technical assistance to Pakistan.

Pre-investment projects are large-scale endeavours, usually costing more than $2 million in UNDP allocations and Government counterpart funds, and averaging more than four years in duration. Allocations for these projects are chiefly spent on experts, equipment and contractual services. Technical assistance undertakings are comparatively small and provide chiefly for expert services and fellowship awards to Pakistani nationals for study, training and work experience abroad.

The status of UNDP assistance to Pakistan as on January 1, 1968 was:

Colombo Plan: The Colombo Plan, initiated in 1950, was one of the earliest examples of multilateral aid from and among specific countries.

This assistance has played a significant role in promoting the mobliza-tion of scientic and technical manpower in the region by providing training fellowships and furnishing the services of experts and consultants for development projects in education and

training as much as in the economy of the country. The total value of technical assistance extended to Pakistan under the Colombo Plan from 1950 to June 30, 1967, amounted to $87.53 million, contributed by Australia, Britain, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, the United States and a number of other other countries. In 1966-67 it provided 493 training places and 83 experts to Pakistan. The value of the technical assistance received by Pakistan in 1965-66 and 1966-67 is given in Table IX.

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

RCD: Reflecting important objectives of Pakistan's foreign policy is the tripartite alliance for peace, economic progress and cultural advancement, Regional Co-operation for Development, among Pakistan, Turkey and Iran, first entered into in July 1964. RCD has had many achievements to its credit in the sphere of economic co-operation (covering joint ventures, increased trade and tentative steps towards plan harmonization though not yet joint planning) and increased cultural exchanges. It has continued to make steady headway during 1967-68.

Initially, 19 groups of industries in which there were good prospects for undertaking joint enterprises were identified. The Ministerial Council has since approved, or approved in principle, the following joint purpose enterprises:

Name of Project	*Location*
1. Bank Note Paper	Pakistan.
2. Cotton Lint Pulp	Pakistan.
3. Kraft Paper	Pakistan.
4. Ball Bearing	Pakistan.
5. Textile Machinery Manufacture	Pakistan.
6. PAS Sodium	Pakistan.
7. Reactive Eyes	Pakistan.
8. Optical Bleaches	Pakistan.
9. Ultramarine Blue	Pakistan.
10. Toxaphe Plant	Pakistan.
11. Wires and Cables	East Pakistan.
12. Dipterex Plant	East Pakistan.
13. Jute Manufactures	East Pakistan.
14. Crawler Tyre Earth Moving Equipment	Pakistan.
15. Shock Absorbers	Pakistan.
16. Machine Tools, Gear Boxes, Clutch System, Steering System, Differential System.	Pakistan.
17. Aluminium Sheets	Pakistan.
18. Polyestor Fibre	Pakistan.
19. Polyacrylonitrile Fibre	Pakistan.
20. Polybutadiene Rubber	Pakistan.
21. Methanol	Pakistan.
22. Urea Formaldehyde	Pakistan.
23. Aluminium	Iran.
24. Carbon Black	Iran.

25. Dumpers	Iran.
26. Seamless Steel Pipes and Tubes	Iran.
27. Sodium Tripolyphosphate	Iran.
28. Naphthol Dyes	Iran.
29. Caprolactam	Iran.
30. Polyisoprene Rubber	Iran.
31. Tetraethyl Lead	Iran.
32. Locomotives	Turkey.
33. Kraft Paper Pulp	Turkey.
34. Streptomycin	Turkey.
35. Organic Pigment Dyes	Turkey.
36. Basic and Chrome Dyes	Turkey.
37. Borax and Boric Acid	Turkey.
38. Machinery for Tea Industry	Turkey.
39. Rubber Tyred Earth Moving Equipment	Turkey.
40. Concrete Mixers and Concrete Preparation Equipment	Turkey.
41. Tungsten Carbide	Turkey.
42. Pressure Vessels	Turkey.
43. Centrifugal and Special Filters for Chemical Industry.	Turkey.
44. Locomotive Diesel Engines	Turkey.
45. Izmir Oil Refinery	Turkey.
46. Polystyrene	Turkey.
47. Glycerine	Turkey.
48. Joint Purpose Enterprises between Pakistan and Turkey for manufacturing resistors, capacitors, semi-conductors and TV pictures, RF Transformers, IF Transformers, Speakers, Mobile Radio Equipment, Sound Equipment excluding Movie Equipment and Test and Measuring Equipment.	Pakistan and Turkey.
49. Diesel Engines required for use in Marinecraft, Tractors, Earth Moving Equipment and Light and Heavy Trucks and Buses.	Iran, Pakistan and Turkey.
50. RCD Advisory and Design Centre	Anyone of the member countries with regional offices in the other two.

Some of these joint purpose enterprises like bank note paper, aluminium, machinery for tea industry, tungsten carbide, methanol and urea formaldehyde are nearing completion. RCD activity in the industrial field, including petroleum and petrochemicals, will lead to harmonization of planning in these fields, and the region as a whole would benefit from the scale of economy and the size of the market.

Trade: Trade is the key to all economic co-operation and, as such, concerted



Leaders of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey at the Second round of the summit meeting held at the President's House, Karachi, on December 26, 1968.

efforts are being made for the expansion of intra-regional trade under the aegis of RCD.

The Ministerial Council at its last session, held at Tehran in April 1968, decided that the representatives of the member Governments should meet as early as possible at the level of their Commerce Ministers at Tehran to discuss and make recommendations for removing, as far as possible, the barriers to intra-regional trade.

Insurance: The RCD Insurance Centre has been set up at Karachi for promoting co-operation in the field of insurance. Consideration is also being given to the establishment of a regional re-insurance company.

Banking: Experts and trainees in the field of banking are being exchanged amongst the member countries. The question of establishing regional financial institutions to promote commercial and development activities is under active consideration of the member Governments.

Communications: Surface postal rates for letter mail of all categories have been reduced to the level of internal rates within the respective countries. Air surcharge on letter mail will be reduced to the internal level by the three countries when joint airlines start operating.

The microwave system connecting the three member countries is operating satisfactorily. Telegraph and telephone rates have been reduced to the level of internal rates within the respective countries.

The building of road links between the three member countries is in progress and is to be completed by the end of 1968 or shortly thereafter.

Work on the RCD rail link between Iran and Turkey is progressing satisfactorily and is to be completed by the end of 1968. Work on the Iran and Pakistan rail link is in progress in Iran, and the portion up to Kashan is expected to be completed during the Iranian Fourth Plan 1968-69 to 1972-73. There is an active rail link between Zahidan in Iran and Pakistan. The work on the portion between Zahidan and Kashan is expected to be taken up by Iran after 1972.

One of the concrete achievements of RCD is the establishment of RCD Shipping Services, which are operating on a number of intra-regional routes. Iran's shares entitlement in the conference is 15 per cent, Pakistan's 50 per cent and Turkey's 35 per cent. The headquarters of the conference have been set up in Istanbul.

The national airlines of the three member countries have appointed each other as their general sales agents. The pooling arrangements by IRAN-AIR and PIA are to be finalized shortly.

Technical Co-operation: A general agreement for the administration of Technical Assistance Programmes under the aegis of RCD has been finalized. The 1968 programme includes holding 10 seminars and exchanges of 41 experts. The programme also envisages 197 training facilities for Iran (161 in Pakistan and 36 in Turkey), 189 for Pakistan (107 in Iran and 82 in Turkey) and 59 for Turkey (26 in Iran and 33 in Pakistan).

IPECC: The Indonesian Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation Organization was established in 1964. Its Secretariat is located at Djakarta and is headed by a Secretary-General and a deputy. It has much the same aims as RCD.

Progress has been recorded in finalizing the framework for economic co-operation and in promoting joint ventures, better trading facilities, provision of credits to and rescheduling of repayment by one to the other side, and the conclusion of a number of specific agreements. The first session of the Ministerial Council of IPECC was held at Djakarta in February 1968. This session was preceded by the third session of the IPECC Economic Council.

Joint Ventures: The fields approved for joint ventures in principle are:

(i) jute;
(ii) fish catching, processing and export;
(iii) rubber processing;
(iv) metal processing;
(v) building small ships and river craft.

Detailed studies including pre-investment surveys and recommendations about location are to be prepared and circulated in respect of these industries by September 1968 by the member country to which the study has been assigned.

Technical Co-operation: The Technical Cooperation Programme for the period ending June 1969 is in operation. The programme envisages exchange of trainees in 22 fields, including a technical survey of the cotton textile industry in Indonesia by Pakistan, supply of Sapi Bali cattle by Indonesia to Pakistan for experimental breeding in East

Pakistan, and supply of horses by Pakistan to Indonesia for breeding purposes.

Communications: The Indonesia-Pakistan Air Agreement which was signed in Karachi in January 1966 is working satisfactorily, and Pakistan International Airlines and Garuda Indonesian Airways are co-operating in matters of common interest.

Arrangements have been made for establishing the aeronautical fixed telecommunication link between Karachi and Djakarta. Arrangements are also underway to establish an Indonesia-Pakistan telex service and start a radio-photo service.

The earlier decision regarding the application of inland postal rates to all categories of surface letters and postal items by the two countries is being satisfactorily implemented. Matters relating to reduction in the air postage rates, parcel postage rates and telegraph rates are under active consideration of the two countries.

In accordance with the agreement between the two Governments on ocean shipping, the vessels of the National Shipping Corporation of Pakistan and Djakarta Lloyd are calling at Indonesian and Pakistani ports.

Trade: Pakistan and Indonesia agreed to reschedule the repayment of the loan of US $10 million given by Pakistan under an earlier agreement. Under Protocol II Pakistan exported goods worth Rs. 61 million (US $12.81 million) and imported goods worth Rs. 44.7 million (US $9.39 million) leaving a balance of Rs. 16.3 million (US $3.42 million).

A number of measures for expansion of trade between the two countries have been recommended. These include regular exchange of information in respect of import and export regulations, exchange of information on the issue of tenders for purchase of commodities which are of export interest to the other country, exchange of lists of commodities of export interest, visits of businessmen and business delegations, consultation between the Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry and the appropriate organization in Indonesia, strengthening banking and shipping services and organizing exhibitions and fairs.

AID TO OTHERS

Pakistan has, in its turn, been giving economic aid, mainly technical assistance, to others. Its contribution to various programmes is summarized in Table X.

Special importance attaches to the quantum of technical assistance rendered to the Middle East countries which may be seen in Table XI.

This can be compared with the contribution made under the Colombo Plan, the oldest instrument of multilateral programmes, in Table XII.

Pakistan's contribution to African countries and to its RCD partners are summarized in Table XIII and XIV, respectively.

Training facilities provided to Nepal in 1967-68 included 67 places in aviation, 3 in medicine and 14 in arts subjects.

TABLE I

FOREIGN ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE TO PAKISTAN
(1950 TO 1967)

($ millions)

Period	Grant	Loan	Total
Pre-First Plan (1950-55)	250	121	371
First Plan (July 1955-June 1960)	572	392	964
Second Plan (July 1960-June 1965)	340	2,064	2,404
Third Plan (July 1965-December 1967)	70	1,153	1,223
Total	1,232	3,730	4,962

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE II
FOREIGN ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE TO PAKISTAN
(BY COUNTRY AND TYPE OF ASSISTANCE)
1950 — 1967

($ millions)

Country/Agency	Grant	Loan	Total
Australia	38.668	—	38.668
Belgium	—	3.033	3.033
Canada	207.874	80.080	287.954
China	—	66.932	66.932
Czechoslovakia	—	41.902	41.902
Denmark	—	9.409	9.409
France	—	89.672	89.672
Germany	—	339.367	339.367
Italy	—	43.023	43.023
Japan	—	261.965	261.965
Netherlands	—	28.436	28.436
New Zealand	6.732	—	6.732
Poland	—	5.630	5.630
Switzerland	—	9.544	9.544
Sweden	—	6.895	6.895
U.K.	10.476	283.540	294.016
U.S.A.	895.001	1,407.009	2,302.010
U.S.S.R.	—	79.596	79.596
Yugoslavia	—	73.420	73.420
Suppliers' credits	—	42.285	42.285
IBRD	—	460.121	460.121
IDA	—	330.976	330.976
IFC	—	14.100	14.100
UN and Specialized Agencies	24.792	—	24.792
Others	48.918	—	48.918
Total	1,232.461	3,676.935	4,909.396

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE III
AVAILABILITY OF ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE FROM CONSORTIUM AND NON-CONSORTIUM SOURCES DURING THE THIRD PLAN

($ millions)

Lending countries/ agencies	Uncommitted pledges on 1.7.65	Pledges during Third Plan				Total
		1965-66	1966-67	1967-68	Sub-total	
A. Through Consortium						
Belgium	9.6	—	0.5	1.0	1.5	11.1
Canada	30.4	25.4	25.4	25.4	76.2	106.0
France	17.1	10.0	10.0	10.0	30.0	47.1
Germany	48.4	40.0	38.8	38.8	117.6	166.0
Italy	14.7	20.0	30.0	15.0	65.0	79.7
Japan	—	30.0	30.0	30.0	90.0	90.0
Netherlands	0.7	4.8	4.4	4.4	13.6	14.3
U.K.	—	22.4	22.4	19.2*	64.0	64.0
U.S.A.	86.0	50.0	140.0	165.0	355.0	441.0
U.S. (Exim Bank)	66.0	—	—	35.0	35.0**	101.0
World Bank/IDA	38.2	49.0	35.0	161.0	245.0	283.2
Total (A)	311.1	251.6	336.5	504.8	1,092.9	1,404.0
B. Outside Consortium						
Canada (wheat)	—	3.7	6.9	7.9	18.5	18.5
France	—	—	10.0	—	10.0	10.0
Italy	—	—	2.0	—	2.0	2.0
Supplier's Credits	—	9.4	25.9	3.4	38.7	38.7
I.F.C.	—	—	3.2	—	3.2	3.2
Total (B)	—	13.1	48.0	11.3	72.4	72.4
Total (A+B)	311.1	264.7	384.5	516.1	1,165.3	1,476.4
C. Non-Consortium						
Australia	—	1.7	—	1.6	3.3	3.3
China	—	—	6.9	40.3	47.2	47.2
Czechoslovakia	14.0	3.2	28.0	3.1	34.3	48.3
Denmark	—	2.2	—	—	2.2	2.2
Poland	14.0	—	—	—	—	14.0
Sweden	—	5.1	1.8	5.0	11.9	11.9
Switzerland	10.0	—	4.5	—	4.5	14.5
U.S.S.R.	50.0	—	84.0	—	84.0	134.0
Yugoslavia	10.7	40.8	30.0	50.0	120.8	131.5
Total (C)	98.7	53.0	155.2	100.0	308.2	406.9
Total (A+B+C)	409.8	317.7	539.1	616.1	1,473.5	1,883.3

Source: Ministry of Finance.
*Original pledge revised due to sterling devaluation.
**Excludes $50 million pledge for Tarbela Dam.

TABLE IV
ESTIMATES OF FOREIGN LOANS AND GRANTS
(FOREIGN EXCHANGE)

(Rs. millions)

	Actuals 1966-67	Budget Estimates 1967-68	Revised Estimates 1967-68	Budget Estimates 1968-69
A.—FOREIGN LOANS:				
I.—CENTRAL LOANS:				
(*i*) Central Government Projects	76.524	245.419	115.401	254.895
(*ii*) East Pakistan Projects	97.193	307.447	191.286	350.329
(*iii*) West Pakistan Projects	250.289	387.323	287.736	304.023
Total—Central/Provincial Government Project Loans	424.006	940.189	594.423	909.247
Autonomous Bodies and Private Sector Projects	196.845	194.079	184.153	149.020
(*a*) Autonomous Bodies	8.884	90.219	15.567	25.749
(*b*) Private Sector	187.961	103.860	168.586	123.271
Total—Central Loans	620.851	1,134.268	778.576	1,058.267
II. GUARANTEED LOANS:				
(*i*) East Pakistan Projects	77.368	263.061	197.348	2,231.19
(*ii*) West Pakistan Projects	38.282	140.582	136.826	100.865
(*iii*) Autonomous Bodies and Private Sector Projects	314.293	—	327.447	270.000
Total—Guaranteed Loans	429.943	403.643	661.621	593.984
Grand Total I & II	1,050.794	1,537.911	1,440.197	1,652.251
III. COMMODITY LOANS	813.823	1,018.280	784.223	1,116.052
GRAND TOTAL—LOANS	1,864.617	2,556.191	2,224.420	2,768.303
B.—FOREIGN GRANTS				
I. TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE	49.472	73.795	64.932	63.712
II. PROJECT GRANTS:				
Central Government Projects	—	9.040	6.083	5.650
East Pakistan Projects	23.697	20.246	19.909	13.890
West Pakistan Projects	20.191	19.849	27.652	21.019
Total—Project-aid	43.888	49.135	53.644	40.559
III. COMMODITY GRANTS	104.143	81.720	58.099	47.000
GRAND TOTAL—GRANTS	197.503	204.650	176.675	151.271

Source: Ministry of Finance.

TABLE V

PL 480 COMMODITY IMPORTS FOR 1967-68

Commodities	Quantity	Amount ($ millions)
Wheat	1,900,000 tons	142.2
Cotton	20,000 bales	4.1
Edible oil	120,000 tons	29.2
Non-fat dry milk	4,000 tons	1.9
Tobacco	900 tons	2.2
Tallow	45,000 tons	8.1
Ocean Transportation		4.3
	Total	192.0

TABLE VI

OUTSTANDING EXTERNAL INDEBTEDNESS OF PAKISTAN

(as on December 31, 1967)

($ million)

	Loans repayable in foreign exchange	Loans fepayable in rupees	Total
Debt Contracted	3,372.638	304.296	3,676.934
Disbursed	2,323.976	303.975	2,627.951
Repaid	419.809	54.332	474.141
Outstanding	1,880.476	249.643	2,130.119
Undisbursed	1,040.997	0.321	1,041.318
Interest paid	189.219	63.474	252.693

The amounts shown in column 1 against "repaid" and "outstanding" would not add up to "disbursed" due to devaluation of sterling. For the same reason "disbursed" and "undisbursed" would not add up to "contracted" amounts under this column.

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE VII

DEBT SERVICE CHARGES FOR EXTERNAL DEBT CONTRACTED UP TO JUNE 30, 1968 AS RATIO TO PAKISTAN'S EARNING OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

($ million)

Years	Foreign Exchange Earnings	External Debt Service	Debt Service Ratio to exchange earnings in per cent
1960-61	475.587	17.157	3.6
1961-62	497.322	30.618	6.2
1962-63	576.807	47.586	8.2
1963-64	576.198	61.509	10.7
1964-65	629.139	62.223	9.9
1965-66	686.784	73.689	10.7
1966-67	729.981	95.718	13.1
1967-68	800.562	103.000	13.0

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE VIII

ASSISTANCE PROVIDED BY UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME TO PAKISTAN AS ON JANUARY 1, 1968

(US dollars)

Field of Assistance	Special Fund		Technical Assistance *Allocation	Total UNDP allocation
	No. of Projects	Allocation		
Agriculture	4	5,229,100	775,500	6,004,600
Industry	3	3,721,100	344,600	4,065,700
Public Utilities	3	1,579,200	190,200	1,769,400
Housing, Building and Physical Planning	1	1,009,700	40,200	1,049,900
Multi sector	1	1,111,800	350,100	1,461,900
Health	—	—	240,000	240,000
Education	1	856,500	609,100	1,465,600
Social Welfare	—	—	76,100	76,100
Public Administration	1	687,500	96,100	783,600
Total Special Fund and Technical Assistance.	14	14,194,900	2,721,900	16,916,800

*Details relate to the 1967-68 biennium, as approved by the Governing Council in November 1966.

Source: Planning Commission.

TABLE IX

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE RECEIVED BY PAKISTAN UNDER THE COLOMBO PLAN DURING 1965-66 AND 1966-67

(In US dollars)

Type of Assistance	1965-66	1966-67
Trainees	2,434,384	2,817,027
Experts	4,903,662	5,406,864
Equipment	2,493,809	1,361,310
Total	9,831,855	9,585,201

Source: Government of Pakistan (Budget documents).

TABLE X

PAKISTAN CONTRIBUTIONS TO TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE PROGRAMMES

(Rupees)

	1967-68 Budget Estimate	1967-68 Revised Estimate	1968-69 Budget Estimate
Expanded programme of the United Nations Technical Assistance for Economic Development	1,190,000	—	1,582,700
U.N. Special Project Fund for Under-developed Countries	2,380,000	—	2,380,000
Technical Assistance under IPECC Agreement	85,000	—	50,000
Asian Institute of Economic Development	70,000	—	69,800
Technical Assistance under CENTO Pact	150,000	—	150,000
Technical Assistance to African Countries	300,000	—	300,000
Technical Co-operation under Colombo Plan	500,000	—	500,000
Technical Co-operation under RCD	575,000	—	600,000
Contribution to UN Training Research Institute	19,000	—	19,000
Technical Assistance to Middle East Countries and Persian Gulf Area	500,000	—	500,000
Commonwealth Secretariat	56,800	—	—
Contribution to Commonwealth Economic Committee	—	—	72,000
Total	5,825,800	5,794,400	6,223,500

*This includes travelling expenses of Pakistani experts going to Iran and Turkey.

Source: The Budget of the Central Government for 1968-69.

TABLE XI

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO MIDDLE EAST COUNTRIES

Country	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Training Facilities				
Kuwait	11	—	—	—
Jordan	—	—	2	1
UAR	—	3	—	—
Saudi Arabia	—	—	16	—
Iraq	—	—	—	8
Total	11	3	18	9
Experts				
Jordan	—	1	—	1

TABLE XII

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO SOUTH-EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES UNDER THE COLOMBO PLAN

Country	1950-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Training Facilities					
Burma	33	—	—	—	1
Cambodia	4	—	—	2	—
Ceylon	12	—	—	3	3
Indonesia	38	—	—	—	—
Laos	1	—	—	—	—
Malaysia	39	3	1	3	3
Maldive	—	—	2	2	—
Philippines	12	—	—	—	1
Thailand	7	—	1	2	2
Viet-Nam	7	1	—	—	—
Total	153	4	4	12	10

TABLE XIII

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO AFRICAN COUNTRIES

Country	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66	1966-67	1967-68
Training Facilities							
Nigeria	16	1	3	4	7	1	4
Ghana	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Sudan	—	1	—	—	—	—	5
Somalia	—	—	2	—	—	1	—
Zanzibar	—	—	—	—	8	—	—
Kenya	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Tunisia	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Tanzania	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Ethiopia	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Total	16	2	8	4	15	5	16
Experts							
Ghana	1	—	1	—	—	—	—
Somalia	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
East Africa	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
Total	1	1	1	1	—	—	1

TABLE XIV

TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE FOR R.C.D. COUNTRIES

	1965	1966	1967	1968
Training Facilities				
For Iran in Pakistan	27	36	88	154
For Turkey in Pakistan	11	19	31	31
Experts				
For Iran from Pakistan	4	6	13	12
For Turkey from Pakistan	1	3	1	3

Source: Planning Commission.



A village school boy.

Education

LIKE other newly constituted nations in Asia and Africa, Pakistan is well aware of the immense importance of education. However, educational advancement is a slow and gradual process. A newly independent nation needs to develop at all levels of education to increase its trained manpower and create universal literacy. But this simultaneous development at all levels of education is usually not feasible, and an order of priorities has to be established. Pakistan is now concentrating on developing technical and vocational education and on specialized training in essential specific activities.

Administration: Education in Pakistan is administered by the provincial authorities in each zone of the country, with the exception of the centrally administered areas of Ayubnagar and Islamabad, which come under the jurisdiction of the Central Ministry of Education. The Education Department in each of the provincial secretariats, working through several directorates of general and technical education and education boards, is directly responsible for the maintenance and provision of facilities for teachers and students.

There are two such directorates in East Pakistan, one of which is technical, and eight in West Pakistan, two of which are technical. The Directorate of Education supervises schools through a team of divisional and district inspectors and inspectresses.

There are four boards of intermediate and secondary education and one board of technical education in each province, while East Pakistan also has a Madrassah Education Board. The task of the boards is to choose the curricula, conduct public examinations, define the qualifications of prospective tea-

chers, and select equipment for educational institutions within its jurisddiction.

The education directorates prepare the syllabi and conduct public examinations of grades I—VIII. Boards of intermediate and secondary education perform these functions for the secondary (IX—X) and higher secondary (XI—XII) stages, and the universities for the degree and post-graduate stages of education.

The Ministry of Education is essentially a co-ordinator and responsible for educational policy and foreign relations in education. In the field of Higher Education, it is assisted by two advisory bodies: the Inter-University Board of Pakistan and the Central Council of Higher Education. The Inter-University Board consists of the vice-chancellors and two other members from each university. The Board, *inter-alia*, helps universities to determine equivalences and standards of examinations conducted by foreign universities; evolves guide-lines for improving academic standards and for securing a fair degree of uniformity in the examinations of Pakistani universities, besides helping to determine and develop their fields of specialization. The Central Council for Higher Education has recently been set up to advise the Government on educational matters of a national dimension, such as:

(i) reflection of the ideology and objectives of Pakistan in appropriate schemes of studies;
(ii) orientation of higher education to the developmental needs of the country;
(iii) liaison between institutions of higher learning and between such institutions and Government research establishments and special central institutes and academies.

Five-Year Plans: Government spending on education between 1947 and 1957 showed an increase from 1.0 per cent of the gross national product to 1.2 per cent. By 1964 the rate of expenditure had more than doubled, amounting to about 2.5 per cent of the gross national product. This excludes expenditure on health education, labour training, etc., which if added would increase the percentage significantly. Similarly annual public expenditure more than quadrupled, from Rs. 200 million in 1958-59 to Rs. 880 million in 1967-68: over Rs. 7 per capita of population (125 million) as against Rs. 3 per capita in 1960-61. In 1966-67, this public expenditure amounted to Rs. 82 per student for a total enrolment of about 10.7 million.

The public sector allocation to education in the three Five-Year Plans increased substantially with each successive period: Rs. 230 million in the First, Rs. 1,100 million in the Second, and Rs. 2,374 million in the Third. The following table shows the allocations in the Third Plan (revised):

Primary Education: While the Government is anxious to achieve universal primary education, limited resources of both teachers and finance mean that this objective can only be achieved gradually as further resources are mobilized. The Perspective Plan, 1965-85, envisages that schooling up to grade V (recognized as a minimum requirement for lasting literacy) will be universal for boys by 1975 and up to

grade VIII by 1980. For girls the target years are 1980 and 1985 respectively. Whereas during 1955-60 enrolments in grades I—V increased by only 880,000, during 1960-65 these increased by some 2.2 million. While during 1955-60 it proved possible to increase the percentage of the relevant age group at school only slightly from 31.5 per cent to 33.4 per cent, by 1965 the percentage had been raised to 38.*

Although revised allocations of the Third Plan reduce the high priority originally given to primary education (allocation reduced from Rs. 520 million to Rs. 318.5 million), it is hoped to counteract this with the following measures: double shifts in schools, the use of mosques as feeder schools, and requiring commercial houses of a certain size to provide facilities for the schooling of their employees' children. With the success of these steps, it should still be possible to realize the objective of increasing enrolments by 5.8 million to bring some 70 per cent of the relevant age group to school by 1970.

The Government runs most of the primary schools and also helps private institutions by means of substantial grants. The independent institutions rely on donations and usually charge comparatively higher fees. Since many children, particularly in the rural areas, do not continue their studies beyond the primary stage, the curriculum is designed to serve a dual purpose: it is both self-contained and preparatory, an end for many and a beginning for some. The curriculum includes the three Rs, social studies, elementary science, arts and crafts, manual labour and other activities to help develop fundamental skills. Religion is a compulsory subject throughout.

Secondary Education: This is structurally organized in three stages: (i) Middle or Junior Secondary with grades VI-VIII, for the 11-13 age group; (ii) High School with grades IX-X, for the 14-15 age group, leading to the Secondary School Certificate Examination; (iii) Higher Secondary or Intermediate with grades XI-XII, for the 16-17 age group, leading to the Higher Secondary School Certificate Examination.

The Education Commission Report, 1959, had recommended that the system of secondary education should be reviewed to free it from an excessively academic-literary orientation and ensure (i) that it provided a complete self-contained stage, possessing objectives, purposes and methods of teaching which would clearly demarcate it from university education and (ii) that it catered for students who would enter a variety of careers at the end of their schooling. In other words, the final stages of secondary education were not only to prepare students for higher education or training, but also for skilled work of various types. Other proposed aims of secondary education were to promote the spirit of nationhood, to build individual character and to develop social service. Following up these recommendations, a curriculum Committee, consisting of experienced headmasters and inspectors of education from all over the country, worked through the greater part of 1960 pre-

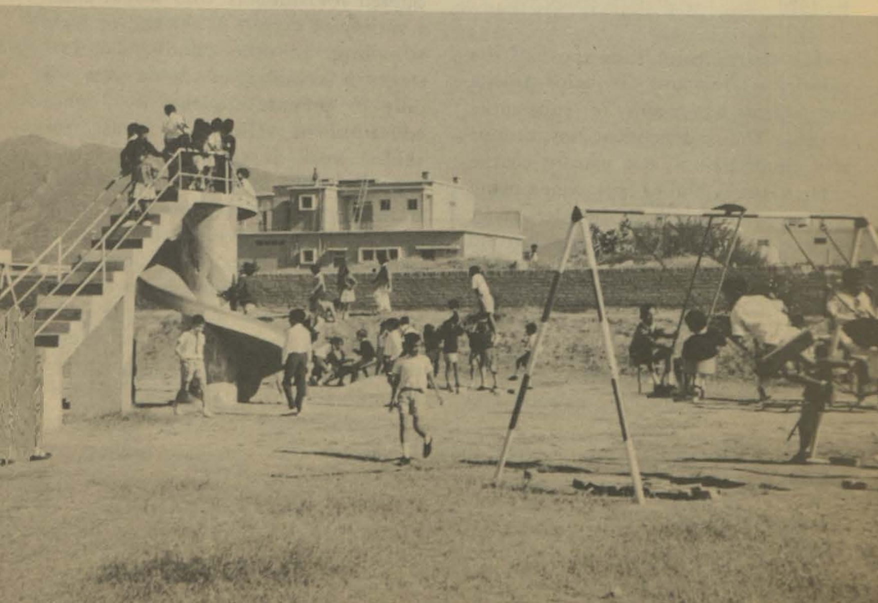
*Taking the relevant age-group to number about 18 million in 1965.

paring curricula and syllabi to meet the recommended objectives. In 1961 new curricula and syllabi were approved and adopted for secondary schools on a nationwide basis. These provided for a core of compulsory subjects (including science and mathematics throughout and religion up to grade VIII), to ensure an adequate level of general education, and a wide range of elective subjects, including many of a technical vocational character to suit different aptitudes and inclinations.

Due to difficulties of providing the requisite teachers as well as the necessary laboratories, workshops and equipment, particularly in most private schools, it has so far been possible to make only a beginning in the direction of the full implementation of the revised curricula. However, Government model comprehensive schools and other pilot schools are all helping towards a greater diversification in schools with a correct teacher-student ratio, new techniques of education, buildings that are spacious and well equipped and finances capable of meeting the new curricular requirements. It is intended eventually to provide at least one Model Comprehensive school in each district of the country. (Also see following section on vocational/technical education).

Of the children who complete primary school, about 20 per cent now go on to the secondary stage as against only 10 per cent in 1947-48. Enrolments in grades VI-X doubled between 1957-58 and 1966-67 from about 1.3 million to 2.6 million. The percentage of girls in the total enrolment increased from 15.5 per cent to about 21 per cent over the same period. To meet the requirements of such rapid expansion, new schools are being opened at the rate of more than one a day—some 400 each year between 1965-1966 and

Playground of a Model School in Islamabad.



1966-1967. Schools administered by the Government and local authorities have 70 per cent of the total enrolment up to grade VIII, but private institutions have 65 per cent of the total enrolment for grades IX-X.

Since residential schools are especially qualified to nurture the development of character and qualities of leadership, together with a sense of national solidarity, a number of such schools have been established all over the country, including pre-cadet colleges with special facilities for students with a bias towards the Defence Services. Substantial grants of scholarships and full or partial remission of fees have been provided for, so that talented but indigent students can now also enter these schools, which formerly were regarded as the preserve of the privileged few.

At the higher secondary level, grades XI-XII, enrolments are also increasing at a rapid rate—about 7 per cent within one year from 1965-66 to 1966-67, when there were over 46,000 students enrolled at some 172 Intermediate colleges. Including Intermediate enrolments at degree colleges, total Intermediate enrolment may well come to around 170,000 students. Public examinations for the higher school certificate are conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education. Girl students form 13 per cent of the enrolment at this level.

Secondary Vocational: There were 101 Vocational Schools, including 29 polytechnics, 32 industrial/vocational and four agricultural schools, enrolling about 25,000* students in 1966-67. Directorates of technical education have been established in both provinces and a new status has been given to technical education. The Third Plan envisages establishing 64 polytechnic/technical institutions by 1970, where in 1960 there were only three. Of these, 27 are to be situated in East Pakistan and 37 in West Pakistan. Together with specialized shorter courses, the polytechnics provide full courses of three years' duration, with matriculation (successful completion of grade X) as the minimum entrance requirement.

More than 50 industrial/vocational schools had been established by 1968, and in accordance with the third plan this number is to be increased to 160 by 1970, with 89 schools of this type in East Pakistan and 71 in West Pakistan. Admission to these generally requires completion of grade VIII.

Over 30 commercial schools were operating in 1966/67 with an enrolment of nearly 4,000 students. Of these 13 were in East Pakistan and 20 in West Pakistan. According to the Third Plan, 32 additional schools of this type are to be established by 1970, 27 in West Pakistan and three in East Pakistan.

Higher Education

The courses for a first degree in general arts and science subjects at present extend over two years: although the Education Commission had recommended that the course should be expanded to cover a period of three years, it has so far not been possible

* With the intake of 11,014 for industrial/vocational schools given by the *Pakistan Economic Survey* 1967-68, as against the estimate of 4,874 given by the Central Bureau of Education.



Students at the administration building of the University of Peshawar.

to implement this recommendation. However, a first degree with honours does now require an additional year of study in both arts and science subjects. First degrees in professional subjects generally require a minimum of three to four years' study, after grade XII, the main exceptions being medicine, which requires a minimum of five years, and teacher training, which requires two years. It is also for professional subjects that entrance requirements become strict, and selections are made either on the basis of competitive examinations or of marks obtained in the Intermediate examination. In 1966-67 there were a total of over 300 colleges affiliated to 11 universities, which prescribe degree courses and conduct examinations. In addition, the universities also carry out teaching for honours and post-graduate courses—M.A. and M.Sc. courses requiring a minimum of two years' study beyond the first degree (one year after an Honours degree). Some colleges of an established standard are also premitted to conduct honours and post-graduate courses in specified subjects.

In the ten years between 1956-57 and 1966-67 enrolments in higher

education nearly trebled from about 100,000 to nearly 286,000.* The distribution of these enrolments for the years 1965-66 and 1966-67 are given in Table II. The two most striking features of the balance of enrolments are (a) that at about 251,000, the enrolment in general arts and science subjects stands at over 87 per cent of the total enrolment and (b) that at a mere 4,189, the enrolment in teacher training colleges and institutes of education amounts to less than 1.5 per cent of the total enrolment. Manpower studies at present under way should show how far this situation needs to be adjusted. The Government has already laid special stress on the development of scientific and technical education, and expansion in these fields is progressing more rapidly than in other sectors of education.

It is also interesting to note that at this level of education girls form about 17 per cent of the total enrolment—rising in the case of the Panjab University to 30 per cent and at Karachi University to over 50 per cent. Their performance at university examinations maintains a higher average standard than that of male students.

The colleges provide over 90 per cent of Pakistan's annual turn out of students. More than 70 per cent of the degree colleges are owned privately, although most of them receive grants-in-aid from the Government. Because of this preponderance of private ownership, the 1964 Commission on Student Problems and Welfare recommended the following measures as safeguards against the commercialization of education: (a) grants-in-aid to be made on uniform principles and calculated on the basis of approved items of expenditure; (b) affiliation to universities to be made contingent upon: (i) their having governing bodies with an official chairman (Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner or his nominee) and other representatives of the Government, the university and the guardians, (ii) their providing standard conditions of service for the staff; (c) a committee of elected members (from among college principals) and headed by the local Director of Education to advise on grants-in-aid, and also to act as the appellate body against decisions made by the governing body of any college.

Universities: Pakistan has 12 universities and a thirteenth is to be opened soon. They are, in order of establishment: the University of Panjab at Lahore (1882), Dacca (1921), Sind at Hyderabad (1947), Peshawar (1959), Karachi (1951), Rajshahi (1953), the Agricultural Universities at Mymensingh and Lyallpur, and Engineering and Technological Universities at Dacca and Lahore (1961), Islamabad (1966) and Chittagong (1966). The thirteenth will be opened at Jahangirnagar, in Dacca.

All the universities are teaching and, with the exception of Islamabad, affiliating bodies. Also with the exception of the central University of Islamabad, whose chancellor is the President of Pakistan, the ex-officio chancellors of all the other universities are the provin-

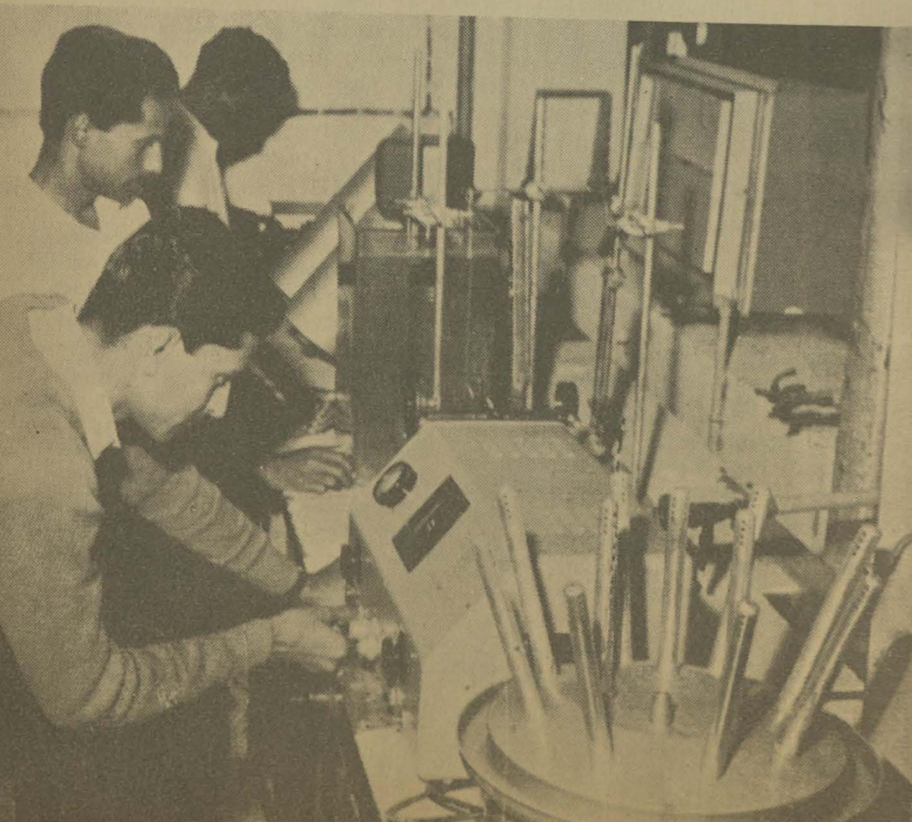
1 The first figure includes all Intermediate enrolments and the second, Intermediate enrolments in degree colleges, as separate data are not available.

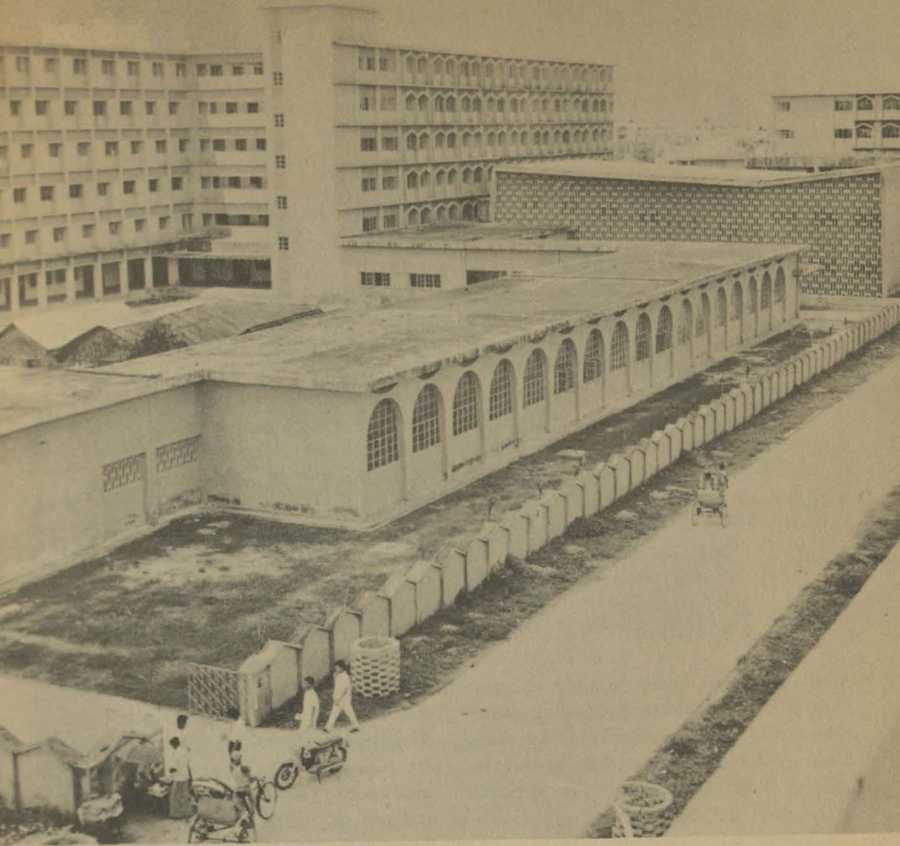
cial governors of their respective provinces. They appoint a vice-chancellor as the academic and administrative head of each university. A registrar, a treasurer and a controller of examinations assist the vice-chancellor in the performance of his tasks.

Administrative and financial authority resides in a Syndicate, which includes the vice-chancellor, representatives of the provincial Education Department, senior professors of the university, principals of affiliated colleges in the case of affiliating universities, and persons nominated by the chancellor. The Syndicate is aided by the Academic Council, the Faculties, the Boards of Studies, the Selection Board, the Committee for Advanced Studies and Research, the Finance Committee and the Planning and Development Committee.

Government expenditure on university grants has been increasing rapidly. Most of the universities have been reconstructing their buildings, libraries and laboratories on well-planned mod-

An electronic experiment at the University of Rajshahi





M. A. Jinnah Hall of the University of Dacca.

ern lines. The Government bears 70 per cent of the total expenditure of each university, and is spending over Rs.200 million for construction works alone at eight universities.

A general university has arts, science and other faculties divided into departments for principal subjects. These provide courses in the arts, social sciences, physical sciences, medicine, and such specialized subjects as architecture, demography and town planning. Most of the universities offer such higher research degrees as the Ph.D., LL.M., LL.D., D.Litt., D.Sc., and D.L.O.

Agriculture: Pakistan is still substantially an agricultural country. The vast majority of the people makes its living from agriculture and there is a growing demand for people specially trained in modern agricultural techniques and for agricultural research to increase productivity and save wastage. An agri-

cultural university was set up in each wing in 1961 to provide facilities for higher education and research in agriculture, agricultural economics, agricultural engineering and technology, veterinary science, animal husbandry, fisheries, forestry and other subjects connected with the rural economy. The East Pakistan Agricultural University offers pre-service and in-service training and extension courses as well as short courses and refresher courses, while in West Pakistan, the university offers Master's degrees in 24 subjects and Doctorates in 20. There are also 73 short courses—with durations varying from one week to two years—which are meant to train sub-professional assistants. About 60 per cent of the students at these universities receive state assistance in the form of scholarships or bursaries.

Medicine: From very modest beginnings, Pakistan is now producing more than 1,000 doctors and surgeons a year. The total number trained so far is around 18,000 and the figure is expected to reach 20,000 by 1970.

The 12 medical colleges in the country, with one or two exceptions, are attached to hospitals where clinical training is given. There is also a Postgraduate Medical centre at Jinnah Hospital in Karachi and research facilities are available at King Edward's Medical College in Lahore. For post-graduate students, a College of Surgery and Hygiene, on the lines of the British Royal College, has recently been set up. An Institute of Health and Tibbi Research has also been established at Karachi.

Nursing has become a popular profession for women in Pakistan, and the number of trained nurses has risen from 400 in 1947 to almost 4,500 in 1966-67. There are 30 nursing schools which offer a three-year course, with facilities for further study.

Research: The Inter-University Board co-ordinates research carried out by all the universities. Encouragement is given in the form of research stipends, scholarships and, for teachers, higher increments and study-leave abroad. The new Islamabad University is primarily intended for the encouragement of research. For applied research, there are two important organizations, namely, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research and the Atomic Energy Commission. The former promotes scientific research with a view to industrial development and maximum utilization of resources; the latter deals with radio-active material, assesses the country's nuclear requirements, and establishes atomic energy and nuclear research institutes. Pakistan's first atomic reactor was set up at Islamabad and the second is to be established at Rooppur. (Also see chapter on Scientific Research).

The Institute of Islamic Research examines issues and studies proposals from the point of view of the teachings of Islam. The Institute exists by virtue of Pakistan's Constitution which also requires that all legislation shall be in conformity with the tenets of Islam. For this reason the Institute's task acquires added significance. Other institutes, of which some have training functions as well, include the Institute of Development Economics, the National Institute of Public Administration, the Institute of International



Annual convocation at Gordon College, Rawalpindi.

Affairs, the Institute of Business Administration, and the Academy of Public Administration.

Scholarships and Fellowships: Five per cent of total public expenditure on education goes into the award of scholarships at the secondary and higher school levels. Residential scholarships include board and lodging, tuition, books, other educational expenses, and pocket money. Non-residential scholarships include all other facilities except board and lodging. These scholarships are usually given to children whose parents belong to the lower income bracket, i.e., less than Rs. 500 a month.

Eight Presidential awards are given to the most outstanding students at the secondary, intermediate, graduate and post-graduate levels. Scholarships and fellowships are also offered for overseas study by the Government, foreign governments, international organizations and private bodies. These are generally meant for post-graduate study, research or practical training. Nearly 150 foreign scholarships/fellowships were available in 1966-67. Cultural exchange programmes with other countries also allow Pakistani students to study abroad. At present more than 150 foreign students are studying in Pakistan under such programmes. Two scholarships are also awarded to each university to enable it to send its most brilliant students to pursue futher studies abroad.

A Central Overseas Training Scheme

selects outstanding scholars in those fields of study which are most relevant to the country's urgent requirements, and sends them abroad for specialized study and training. Over 50 students are at present abroad under this scheme. The Ministry of Education encourages Pakistanis who have studied abroad to return to the country and teach and carry out research at its universities.

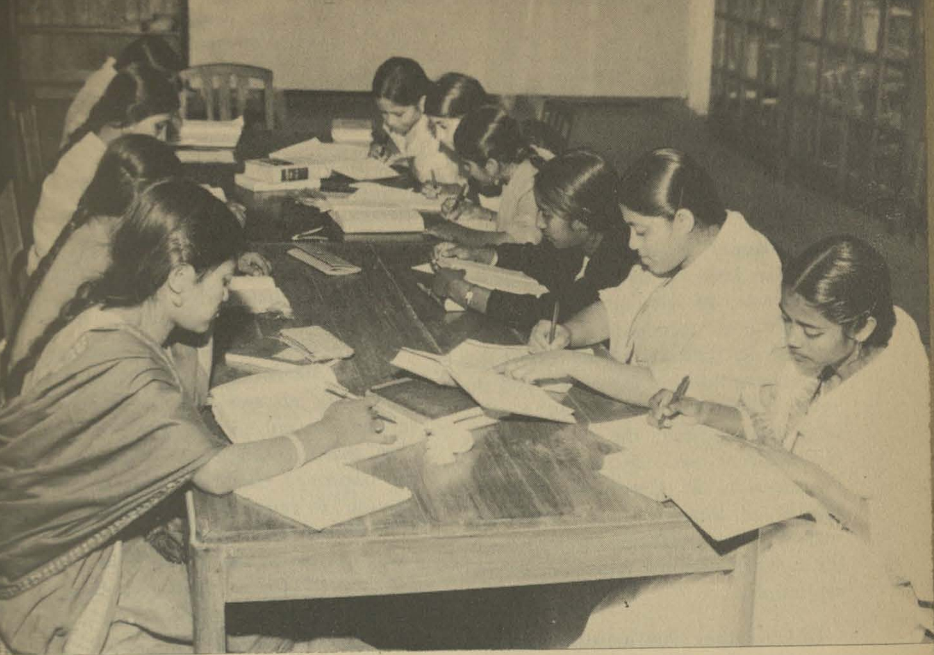
At present there are well over 2,000 Pakistanis studying abroad, mainly in Europe, the United States and Japan. More than 30 per cent of them are studying engineering and various forms of technology, while 20 per cent are studying accountancy. The remainder are pursuing studies in the natural sciences, social sciences, law, agriculture and medicine.

National Languages: Government policy is to encourage the use of national languages as media of instruction. Apart from a few private schools, where English is the medium of instruction, the majority of primary and secondary schools already use the national languages. At the level of higher education, teaching in the national languages is being gradually introduced, and dictionaries of technical terms are being issued as they are completed for different fields of study.

The national languages are also being developed further with the introduction of new textbooks and literature in these languages. The universities and other institutions which are engaged in this task are receiving assistance and guidance from the Central and provincial Governments. The Tarraqqi-e-Urdu Board, Karachi, which is preparing a comprehensive Urdu lexicon, the two boards for the promotion of Urdu and Bengali, the Bengali Academy, and the Pakistan Writers' Guild are all actively engaged in this project.

Libraries: The Panjab University has the oldest and most extensive library in Pakistan. It was founded in 1882 and has a collection of almost 200,00 volumes, including over 18,000 manuscripts in Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, Hindi, Pali and Gurmukhi. It subscribes to 300 periodicals in various languages. There are over 180,000 volumes at the Dacca University, including some 30,000 manuscripts in Bengali, Sanskrit, Urdu, Persian and Puthi. Karachi comes next among universities, with 110,000 volumes, 2,000 manuscripts and subscription to 500 periodicals. The other universities have an average of 50,000 volumes each.

The Directorate of Archives and Libraries collects and maintains important Government and historical documents for research and reference. The Directorate has three libraries the Liaquat National Library (150,000 volumes), the Central Secretariat Library (16,000) and the National Archives Library (7,500). By 1970, the Directorate is expected to have two more libraries, at Dacca and Islamabad, respectively. The Directorate also administers the National Bibliographical Unit, which collects bibliographical data on Pakistani books, periodicals, newspapers and Government publications, and the International Book Exchange Centre, which exchanges books with other countries and distributes them to libraries in Pakistan. The Centre has already received over 25,000 books for distribution.



Students at work in a College Library at Dacca.

The State Bank of Pakistan has the largest departmental library, with 30,000 volumes, mostly on economics and related subjects. The library of the Department of Archaeology has 25,000 volumes, and is particularly rich in journals. The Dastur Dhalla Collection, consisting of rare books on Zoroastriansism, Iranistics, and comparative religion, was donated to the Archaeological Library by the late Mr. Hoshang Dinshaw of Karachi. The Punjab Public Library has a stock of over 125,000 volumes, including 1,000 rare manuscripts. The National Museum at Karachi and Dacca, the Central Library of Bahawalpur, and the East Pakistan Central Public Library also have substantial collections. All these are maintained by provincial governments and municipal committees. The Rajshahi Varendra Research Society has 3,000 ancient Sanskrit, Pali and Bengali manuscripts, some of them written on palm leaf. The All Pakistan Women's Association has already set up a children's library at Karachi and is in the process of setting up another at Dacca. Library Associations include the West Pakistan Library Association, the Karachi Library Association, the East Pakistan Library Association and the All-Pakistan Library Association. There is also a Society for the Promotion and Improvement of Libraries at Karachi.

The Associations offer a certificate course in library science, as does the Sind University. The Dacca, Karachi, Lahore and Peshawár Universities conduct post-graduate courses in library science, and the first two offer Master's degree courses. In spite of

this, there are only a little over 1,000 trained librarians in the country, while the requirements is estimated to be 10,000.

Educational Reform: The government has been keenly conscious of the importance of developing and maintaining high standards of education and of the difficulty of achieving this together with rapid expansion and the acute limitation of resources. Shortly after it took office, the Revolutionary Government set up an Education Commission, in December 1958, to review all aspects of education and make recommendations for reforms in the light of national requirements and aspirations.

In December 1964, another Commission was set up on Student Problems and Welfare, under the chairmanship of Justice Hamoodur Rahman, with the following terms of reference:

"(i) to examine the provisions of the University Ordinances and suggest modifications wherever necessary;

(ii) to take stock of existing facilities for a sound programme of studies and to suggest remedial measures commensurate with available resources;

(iii) to determine the adequacy or otherwise of the recreational and welfare facilities of students and suggest ways and means of providing them within available resources;

(iv) to examine any other matter affecting student life".

Presenting its report in 1966, the Commission pointed out that while it was made "painfully aware of a precipitate deterioration in the standards of teaching and examinations", it was not making new recommendations on educational policy, and had confined itself "to ascertaining deficiencies, if any, in physical and teaching facilities and looking into matters which were causing dissatisfaction among students".

The Commission's recommendations, nevertheless, covered the full range of formal education from primary school to the university. While suggesting no new scheme or major expenditure not envisaged in the third plan, it laid special stress on the need to improve teaching and teacher training; to carry out the expansion of agricultural and technical/vocational education as quickly as possible with due regard for adequate standards; improve facilities for the teaching of science, and generally to give greater importance to teaching, laboratory and library facilities than to ostentatious buildings; to proceed cautiously with the adoption of national languages as media of education at the honours and post-graduate level, making sure that facilities for this were adequate and the maintenance of standards assured; to improve student teacher relations and also remove misunderstandings and dissatisfactions created by inadequate public relations work on the part of educational institutions and authorities at all levels.

Toward the end of 1968, a Commission on Manpower and Education has been established, under the chairmanship of Mr. G. Ahmad, to assess national human resources and manpower requirements, and to make recommendations on priorities in educational organization and development to meet these requirements in an optional and balanced way. (Also see chapter on Development Planning.)

TABLE I

Number of Schools and Enrolments
1965-66 *and* 1966-67

A. 1965-66

Type of School	Total		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	No.	Enr.	No.	Enr.	No.	Enr.
Primary I-V	60,972	6,813,622	28,042	4,175,333	32,930	2,638,289
Secondary Middle VI-VIII	4,462	792,140	1,677	163,310	2,785	628,830
High IX-X	4,089	1,613,483	2,431	792,896	1,658	820,587
Intermediate XI-XII*	166	42,983	65	17,697	101	25,286
Vocational	95	17,525	34	5,593	61	11,932
Teacher Training	114	14,323	50	5,570	64	8,753
Special Schools***	5,009	571,248	4,341	525,140	668	46,108
Adult Schools	460	10,359	394	9,368	66	991

B. 1966-67 (estimated)

Type of School	Total		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	No.	Enr.	No.	Enr.	No.	Enr.
Primary I-V	61,496	7,050,741	28,225	4,306,487	33,271	2,744,254
Secondary Middle VI-VIII	4,470	835,090	1,601	169,706	2,869	665,384
High IX-X	4,483	1,750,896	2,789	886,862	1,694	864,034
Intermediate XI-XII*	172	46,069	71	19,925	101	26,144
Vocational	101	19,070**	37	5,630	64	13,440
Teacher Training	115	15,072	50	6,319	65	8,753
Special Schools***	5,195	654,294	4,523	608,031	672	46,263
Adult Schools	460	10,359	394	9,368	66	991

Source: Central Bureau of Education.

*Does not include Intermediate enrolments in degree colleges, which probably amount to well over 120,000.

**According to another estimate this figure is nearer 25,000

***These include Arabic Madrassahs, tanzeem schools, and schools for the handicapped.

TABLE II

Enrolments in Higher Education
1965-66 *and* 1966-67

Type of Institution	1965-66					1966-67 (estimated)				
	Total	East Pakistan		West Pakistan		Total	East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
		Total	Female	Total	Female		Total	Female	Total	Female
General Arts & Science Colleges*	216,933	107,900	7,104	109,033	24,619	233,601	118,354	11,296	115,247	29,046
Professional Colleges	21,968	6,373	672	15,595	2,193	24,550	7,264	795	17,286	2,379
Agriculture	1,296	220	—	1,076	4	1,304	220	—	1,084	4
Animal Husbandry	440	—	—	440	1	440	—	—	440	1
Commerce	4,318	1,762	—	2,556	15	4,953	1,762	—	3,191	18
Engineering	3,123	216	—	2,907	6	3,911	245	—	3,666	9
Fine Arts	370	137	20	233	40	372	137	20	235	42
Forestry	92	—	—	92	—	99	—	—	99	—
Home Economics	1,347	304	304	1,043	1,043	1,532	320	320	1,212	1,212
Law	4,507	1,539	1	2,968	31	4,871	1,903	1	2,968	31
Medicine	6,385	2,105	320	4,280	1,053	6,952	2,561	418	4,391	1,062
Medicine	5,952	2,035	320	3,917	1,037	6,430	2,496	418	3,961	1,044
Dentistry	159	36	—	123	15	171	48	—	123	17
Tibbi	274	34	—	240	1	351	44	—	307	1

Social Work	90	90	27	—	—	116	116	36	—	—
Teacher Training	3,835	1,359	234	2,476	721	4,189	11,631	242	2,558	731
T.T. Colleges	2,674	967	154	1,707	568	2,914	1,207	161	1,707	568
Technical TT Colleges	121	—	—	121	—	180	50	—	130	—
Univ. Inst. of Ed.	761	275	69	486	106	805	246	59	559	116
Inst. of Phys. Ed.	279	117	21	162	47	290	128	22	162	47
Universities	22,853	8,821	994	14,032	2,763	24,409	9,984	1,295	14,425	3,077
General	16,797	6,729	987	10,068	2,754	17,757	7,689	1,287	10,068	2,914
Agriculture	3,242	824	—	2,418	6	3,411	999	—	2,412	159
Engineering	2,814	1,268	7	1,546	3	3,241	1,296	8	1,945	4
TOTAL	265,589	124,453	8,332	141,136	30,296	286,749	137,233	13,628	149,516	35,233

Source: Central Bureau of Education

*Includes Intermediate enrolments as a source of error, and these probably amount to some 55-60 per cent of total enrolments.

TABLE III

Number of Higher Education Institutions
1966-67

Type of Institution	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
General Arts and Science Degree Colleges	240	102	138
Professional Colleges	59	23	36
Agriculture	3	1	2
Animal Husbandry	1	—	1
Commerce	9	2	7
Engineering	5	1	4
Fine Arts	2	1	1
Forestry	1	—	1
Home Economics	4	1	3
Law	15	8	7
Medicine	18	8	10
Medicine	12	6	6
Dentistry	2	1	1
Tibbi	4	1	3
Social Work	1	1	—
Teacher Training	19	8	11
T.T. Colleges	12	5	7
Technical T.T. Colleges	2	1	1
University Institutes of Education	3	1	2
Institutes of Physical Education	2	1	1
Universities			
General	8	3	5*
Agriculture	2	1	1
Engineering	2	1	1

Source: Central Bureau of Education.

*Including Central University of Islamabad for research and post-graduate studies in science.

TABLE IV

Output of graduates 1957-58 *and* 1967-68

Examination	Number of candidates passing	
	1957-58	1967-68
Intermediate	12,741	70,000
B.A., B.Sc., B.Com.	4,877	24,000
M.A., M.Sc., M.Com.	1,159	5,465
Field	**Number completing training**	
	1957-58	1967-68
Engineering	339	1,152
Technician	530	3,500

Source: Planning Commission.

Physics Students at the University of Peshawar.

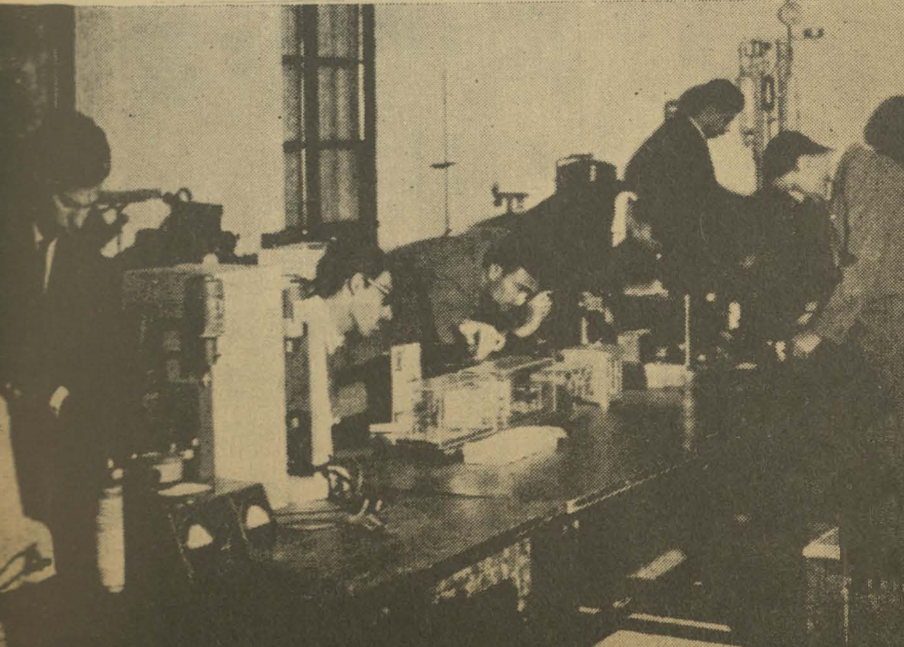


TABLE V

Graduation Trends between 1951 *and* 1961

A. Number of Matriculates, Graduates and Post-Graduates (All Religions) in 1951 and 1961 and Their Variation—Pakistan and Provinces

(—) denotes decrease

Locality	Matriculates[1]			Graduates			Post-Graduates		
	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961
Pakistan	521,856	884,148	69.4	85,988	82,069	(—)4.6	22,546	31,470	39.6
East Pakistan	282,158	299,967	6.3	41,484	28,069	(—)32.3[2]	8,117	7,146	(—)12.02
West Pakistan	239,698	584,181	143.7	44,504	54,000	21.3	14,429	24,324	68.6

1 Includes those who have also passed Intermediate standard.

2 These decreases are at least in part probably due to the emigration of educated non-Muslims.

B. Number of Matriculates, Graduates and Post-Graduates (Muslims) in 1951 and 1961 & Their Variations—Pakistan and Provinces
(—) denotes decrease

Locality	Matriculates[1]			Graduates			Post-Graduates		
	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961	1951	1961	Per cent of Variation 1951-1961
Pakistan	424,435	781,174	84.1	69,770	74,256	6.4	19,694	28,683	45.6
East Pakistan	190,712	208,007	9.1	26,910	21,571	(—)19.8	5,718	4,903	(—)16.6
West Pakistan	233,723	573,167	145.2	42,860	52,685	22.9	13,976	23,780	70.2

[1] Includes those who have also passed Intermediate standard.

* An indication of progress since 1961 is given by the fact that the number of first degrees awarded in the second half of the sixties exceeds 20,000 per year.

Source: Census of Pakistan—Vol. I, 1961.

TABLE VI

Third Five-Year Plan Allocations for Education and Training
(*as revised, March* 1967)

Million rupees (rounded)

Sub-Sector	E. Pak.	W. Pak.	Central Govt.	Total
Elementary Education:				
(a) Primary	250	69	—	319
(b) Middle/Junior High/Secondary	260	297	—	557
Teacher Education	45	36	—	81
Technical Education (including E. Pak. Engineering University)	357	259	—	616
Colleges (excluding Intermediate)	51	61*	—	112
Universities (excluding E. Pak. Engineering University)	150	92	37	279
Scholarships	66	91	11	168
Madrassah Education	14	—	—	14
Social and Cultural Activities	9	2	43	54
Special Projects	26	10	—	36
Special Areas	—	21	9	30
Training in Public Admin.	10	1	9	20
Publicity Schemes	—	—	10	10
Hamoodur Rahman Commission Report	—	50	—	50
Central Govt. Educational Institutes: Dacca, Pindi, Islamabad	—	—	27	27
Establishment Division	—	—	2	2
TOTAL	1,238	988	148	2,374
Private Sector	200	100	—	300
GRAND TOTAL	1,438	1,088	148	2,674

Source: Planning Commission: revised phasing, sectoral priorities and allocations.

*First revision brought this figure to Rs. 65.38 million—the only allocation to be raised for West Pakistan—but subsequently Rs. 3.88 million for colleges at Islamabad were deducted.

Scientific Research

In Pakistan, scientific research is being actively promoted and encouraged by the Government and, through its well-organized scientific bodies and associations, substantial progress has already been achieved.

PCSIR: The Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research is the oldest of the six councils created to promote research in various scientific fields. It is also the most broad-based. Its research facilities cater for fundamental research in various disciplines on the one hand, and great emphasis is laid on applied and industrial research to meet the growing needs of the country on the other. The PCSIR has four well-equipped laboratories, one each at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore and Peshawar.

During the last few years particularly, the council has progressively oriented its activities towards problems of research that have a direct bearing on the industrial utilization of the country's natural resources. At present, therefore, only about 10 to 15 per cent of its budget goes to fundamental research while the remainder is devoted to projects that should promote industrial potential.

PCSIR laboratories have research divisions for separate subjects, as follows:

The Central Laboratories, at Karachi, have seven research divisions for physical, chemical and biochemical research, for drugs (including pest infestation), building materials, fuel and engineering.

The East Regional Laboratories at Dacca have five divisions, for natural products, fuel, food and fruit techno-

logy, leather, and glass and ceramics.

The West Regional Laboratories at Lahore also have five divisions, for metallurgical research, industrial fermentation, oil, fats and waxes, glass and ceramics, and food technology.

The North Regional Laboratories, Peshawar have four divisions for indigenous drugs, fruit technology, mineralogy and wool.

Two more laboratories, namely, North East Regional Laboratories at Rajshahi consisting of lac research division, oil, fat and waxes research division, fibre research division, and natural drugs research, and Development Institute at Chittagong with four divisions, namely, botanical division, chemical division, pharmacological division and pilot plant division are being set up and are expected to start functioning shortly.

Out of some 200 processes developed by scientists of PCSIR, about 100 relate to industry and have already gone into production or are likely to go into production in the near future.

The production capacity of most of these processes is not very large and lies in the order of Rs. 300,000 to Rs. 500,000 a year, but taken together their impact on overall economic development is substantial. This is so because all these processes aim at utilization of indigenous raw materials, equipment and technical know-how which results in a large saving of foreign exchange. Moreover, some of these processes may well prove to be good foreign exchange earners. Apart from the civilian sector, the scientists

A section of the pilot plant room at the East Regional Laboratory of PCSIR at Dacca.



of the council have also undertaken investigations on problems pertaining to defence and have achieved a notable measure of success.

The war with India in September 1965 created a situation wherein the path of least resistance in the form of foreign readymade methods, and the industries based on them, was no longer found easy and practicable. *Ad-hoc* problems in the shape of shortage of imported raw materials developed bottle-necks in many industries. The industrialist, for the first time, was thus forced to refer his problems for local solution and the scientists of the PCSIR were always able to find an answer. This communication between the scientist and industrialist created a climate of self-reliance which was good for the health of industry as well as for the progress of industrial research sector. The *ad-hoc* problems cover a wide range extending from such items as development of waterproofing, compositions for textiles to the designing of furnaces for metallurgical and ceramics production; from development of a rubber lining compound in can sealing to decolourization of crude honey found in Sunderbans so that it can be exported.

The Meteorological Department asked for a "water activated cell" required to replace imported batteries used in weather forecasting. A specimen cell, designed and fabricated at the council laboratories, has been tested and approved by the department.

Processes in Use: Some of the 30 processes now in commercial production are highly interesting and give an idea of the impact the research effort of the PCSIR is having and can have on industrial development of the country.

1. *Jutoid* — waterproof matting: This matting is based on hessian with an impregnating composition evolved from locally available materials. The lessees of the process started production in 1959, and have so far manufactured over 2.5 million sq. ft. at their plants in Karachi and Dacca. Present annual production is of the order of Rs. 400,000 and can be increased much further.

2. *Cemto* — integral powder waterproof for cement/concrete: This is being produced on a commercial scale in West Pakistan, and steps have been taken to lease out the process in East Pakistan also. The present annual production is approximately Rs.100,000 and can be increased to Rs. 300,000 when a complete ban is imposed on the import of counterparts.

3. *Fixempero* — dry distemper: This dry distemper is alkali free, rub-resistant and waterproof and can be manufactured entirely from indigenous raw materials. The process has been leased to a party in West Pakistan and production is at present worth Rs. 100,000 annually.

4. *Balcrete* — foaming agent and foam cement/concrete: Balcrete is a liquid used for the manufacture of light-weight foam concrete. The consumption of the final product is about 2-4 ozs. per bag of cement and the process has been leased out. At present the manufacturer is selling the product to a value of Rs. 150,000 which corres-



A scientist busy at the Biochemistry section of the Central Laboratories of PCSIR, Karachi.

ponds to Rs. 4.5 million of light-weight concrete.

5. *Hymax* — fish liver oil with Vitamins A & D: Pakistan imports large quantities of fish liver oils for its requirements of Vitamin A, along with other preparations containing synthetic Vitamin A. From shark liver oil, the PCSIR has evolved a process for simultaneous production of concentrates of Vitamin A with a potency of around one million U.S.P. units per gram, and a deodorized, decolourized oil with a standardized Vitamin A content of around 7,000 U.S.P. units per gram. The industry based on this process was leased out for commercial exploitation in West Pakistan in 1959.

6. *Antifirol* — fire-fighting foam composition: At present all foaming agents for fire-fighting are imported from abroad but foam formed by the Antifirol is much thicker than that from the imported materials and produces a dense coating compared with the thin covering obtained with imported material. The stability of the foam is more than 45 minutes as against 30 minutes as required by British and American Standard specifications and the throwing range is also higher than that of imported material.

7. *Cuperx and Zincox* — wood preservatives: These have been evolved for preservation of wood. They replace creosote in the treatment of wooden sleepers for railways and can

be used for the treatment of jute bags and ropes for which, generally, copper napthenate is imported. The products have the advantage that they can be used by non-pressure treatments such as brush-spray or dipping. These preservatives are highly effective and permanent and their outstanding characteristic is that they do not cause the wood to swell. Where necessary, insecticides can be incorporated into the process.

The process was leased out in West Pakistan in 1966, and experimental production has started with a turnover estimated at Rs. 200,000.

The other processes that are already under production and have taken the shape of industry are:

— Petrol gas plant for use in colleges and universities to generate gas.
— Plastic resin for textile industry.
— Cemcon — an integral liquid waterproof for cement/concrete.
— Fire-fighting foam composition in liquid form.
— Caoutchoucine — a denaturant for rectified spirit.
— Saccharon — an iron saccharate for pharmaceuticals.
— Norela — a fruit juice drink.
— Pectin (for its production).
— Chinese Blue — a new process for the production of ferrocyanide blue.
— White Factice, for rubber industry.
— Gelatine-based printing rollers.
— Ether from alcohol.
— A process for the tanning of lizard skin.

Leather Research Laboratory of PCSIR at Dacca.



— A process for the manufacture of 'picking band'.
— Process for the production of transcript varnish.
— Process for the fabrication of distilled-water plant.
— Process for the production of caffeine.

Processes Leased: A number of processes that have been leased out to industry but have not yet gone into production are significant and are likely to fill a gap in many vital sectors. A few of such processes are:

1. Patrica — wood chip-board: This board will help to meet the shortage of timber through utilization of wood waste and other agricultural wastes, such as jute sticks. A salient feature of the process evolved by the council is that the binder is based substantially on indigenous raw materials. The process has been leased out for commercial exploitation and it is hoped that the production will start shortly. The annual production value is expected to be Rs. 1,000,000 with a good possibility of export.

2. Fuller's Earth from bentonite: The process has been leased out for commercial exploitation and production will be started after local fabrication of the necessary equipment. The estimated annual production is expected to be worth Rs. 500,000.

3. Marbolite, a synthetic marble, is estimated to cost about a quarter of local white natural marble. It has the added advantage of being acid and alkali resistant, and possesses shielding properties against gamma radiation. The process has been leased out for commercial exploitation, and the annual value of the process, when it goes into full production, will be about of Rs. one million. It has export potential as well.

4. Synthetic honey has been evolved in the laboratories of the PCSIR which can be used in biscuits and other articles of confectionery. It has the taste and nutritional properties of natural honey.

5. Essential Oils: A process for the recovery of *Khavi* grass oil, nair oil and oil of juniper, developed by the PCSIR laboratories, has been leased out. It will be the first industry in the country producing essential oils.

6. Self-Lubricating Bearings: These bearings have the ability to replenish the oil on the bearing surface which ensures that the bearing will not run dry. The process has been leased out to manufacture.

Important Research Work: The processes outlined are such that very big industries cannot be based on them. Depending on the demand, the turnover in almost all of them is limited to a few hundred thousand rupees, but some of the processes developed in the laboratories of the council could be termed partial solutions to some problems of national importance. Such a case is that of pesticides.

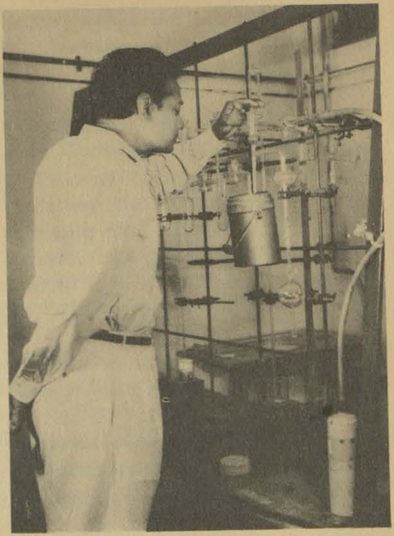
Pesticides: Chlorinated pesticides developed in the council's laboratories hold promise of filling an important gap in this vital sector of industry. It is estimated that about Rs. 100 million are spent each year to import pesticides for agriculture. Even so, this fills the need of only 10 to 15 per cent of the

acreage that goes under cultivation. In other words, large areas remain unsprayed, with consequential damage to crops. Two pesticides, Petkolin and Makrolin, developed from indigenous raw materials (Petkolin from petroleum Cuts and Makrolin from a waste product of Daudkhel fertilizer factory) will help to meet the demand for pesticides. A half-ton, semi-commercial plant is already producing in the laboratories of the council.

In the case of phosphatic insecticides, the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation referred the problem to the council. Two processes, for which patents have been filed, are similar to the well-known products Malathion and Diptrex, two insecticides extensively used by the Plant Protection Department. A scheme to set up manufacturing plants based on these processes is being considered by the WPIDC.

Jute Sticks: At present waste jute sticks are treated as waste in East Pakistan to the extent of 2 to 4 million tons annually. Research in the council's laboratories has yielded good results. Pulp complex, hardboard and paper of various grades could yield good dividends and trials on production of different grades of paper through pilot plant studies are already in progress in the laboratories at Dacca.

The dual role of the atom — as a source of power and as a unique research tool — has been fully recognized in Pakistan and the Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission (PAEC) has embarked on a programme of power production as well as research.



An experiment for the manufacture of phosphatic insecticide.

Atomic Power: The per capita power consumption in Pakistan has risen to over 50 units, but this is a meagre figure when compared with that in the USA (over 5,500 units), in Canada (over 6,500), in UK (over 2,800 units), and that in Japan (1,800 units).

With this in mind, the PAEC has embarked on a sizeable programme of atomic power production. In Karachi, the work on a 137-megawatt reactor, scheduled to be operative in about two years' time, is in an advanced stage. Another reactor at Rooppur in East Pakistan has been earmarked for the Fourth Plan period and negotiations for this are on with USSR.

The 137-megawatt power reactor at Karachi is a natural uranium, heavy water, moderated type. It is to produce electricity at the rate of a little over 3

paisa per unit and the capital cost of the whole project is estimated at Rs. 320 million.

Atomic Research: The production of atomic power is development work involving little research. The research sector is different and calls for effort on a different plane in both pure and applied fields. Broadly, the research effort in the atomic field goes in four streams:

— Unravelling the mysteries hidden in the nucleus of the atom. This is fundamental research.
— Use of radiation sources and radio-isotopes in agriculture, including disinfestation of food-grains and preservation of food.
— Use of radio-isotopes in medicine.
— Use of radio-isotopes in industry.

To maximize effort in all these directions, the PAEC has set up several institutions.

PINSTECH: The biggest research institute for this work is in Islamabad, and is called the Pakistan Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology (PINSTECH) with a 5-megawatt, swimming pool type reactor. Around the reactor, made critical in December 1965, are laboratories specializing in sub-branches of nuclear science. These include nuclear physics, nuclear engineering, nuclear chemistry, radiation biology, metallurgy, health physics and electronics.

PINSTECH also acts as a post-graduate centre where scholars from other institutions have facilities for research in nuclear science and engineering.

The reactor is a significant tool for the production of radio-isotopes which in Pakistan are finding increasing use in industry, agriculture and medicine. Foreign exchange spending on radio-isotopes will be reduced as the radio-isotope production in the reactor increases.

The Institute has a phased programme of development and is likely to be completed in 1970.

Lahore Centre: Apart from the central facility at PINSTECH, the Atomic Energy Commission has established two well-equipped regional research-*cum*-training centres, at Lahore and Dacca respectively.

The Lahore AEC Centre has a 150 kv neutron generator and a sub-critical assembly as its principal tools. It is also equipped with such equipment as a 512-channel analyser.

The experiments at the Lahore centre range from application of radio-isotopes in different fields, and production of shortlived radio-isotopes like phosphorus-32 and gold-198 that cannot be imported, to developing new techniques for separating isotopes, as well as exploring the possibilities of food preservation through radiation, devising new electronic equipment and studies in nuclear physics.

In chemistry section, significant work has been done on the detection and estimation of minute quantities of those trace elements in the soil which give high yields. Their deficiency gives a poor crop. The effect of radiation on natural fibres and oil has also been a subject of study in this section.

Gamma radiation has been used all over the world in a drive to preserve food. The radiobiology section at the centre has also carried out extensive experiments on potatoes and food-grains.

It has been found at the centre that sprouting in potatoes can be stopped by subjecting them to gamma radiation. Similarly, experiments on preservation of wheat and rice by irradiating them have brought promising results. Gamma radiation can be used as an insecticide and pesticide and so help in the storage of food-grains for long periods. It is estimated that in Pakistan 10 to 15 per cent of stored grain is lost each year due to pests.

The electronics section of the Lahore centre has designed and executed two survey meters used for surveying radioactive deposits. About 100 such meters have been manufactured and made available to students and others interested in such survey work.

This section has also undertaken some very useful experiments on solar energy as, for example, a project to operate a tube-well by harnessing solar energy from a paraboloid mirror, which would be of much use in the country. To light a village hut from solar energy by converting it directly into electricity, employing silicon cells, is yet another novel effort. Silicon cells are largely used in space craft to provide electrical power for space craft equipment by harnessing solar energy. This system has been duplicated on the ground at Lahore and the unit can provide light for dwellings. The economics of the venture have not yet been fully determined, but because silicon cells have a life exceeding 20 years, the experiment appears to be promising in commercial terms.

Dacca Centre: In East Pakistan, at Dacca, a research-*cum*-training centre similar to that at Lahore has been established. This centre is, however, equipped with somewhat different tools to cater for other types of work.

At Dacca, a Vande Graaff accelerator has been installed as the principal facility. Basic experiments in nuclear

Front view of the Atomic Energy Centre, Dacca.



science such as determining the total neutron capture cross-section of uranium can be undertaken with this equipment. The Dacca centre also has an IBM-1620 computer, the first installed in the country, but use is made of it by scientists throughout the country.

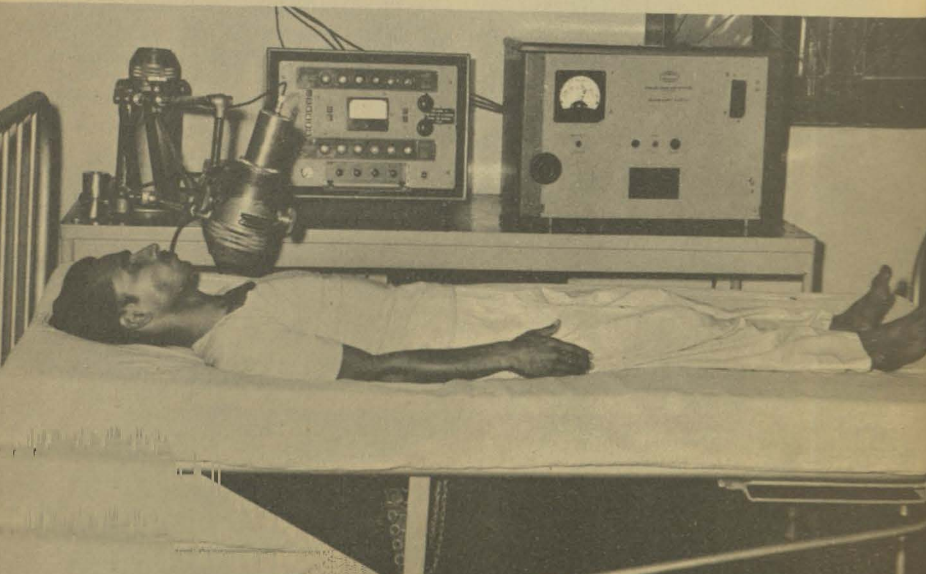
A very interesting experiment was conducted on the silkworm at the Dacca centre. By subjecting it to radiation dozes, the silkworm of East Pakistan which is essentially a lazy insect has been turned into an active worker. It is thought that by treating the silkworm larva with low dozes of atomic radiation, its efficiency can be increased, and promising mutations can be induced. Preservation of cocoons may possibly be revolutionized through treatment by atomic radiation instead of the age-old method of drying in the sun.

The Dacca centre of the PAEC is equipped with a cobalt-60 irradiation facility with about 500 Curies. This source of radiation can be utilized for irradiation work in agricultural, medical and industrial fields.

The PAEC has two centres, one at Tandojam in West Pakistan and the other at Dacca, exclusively for research in agriculture. These centres are conducting research on fertilizer tracer techniques to gather information as to how a plant assimilates different types of fertilizers at different cycles of its life. Fertilizer ratios of nitrogen, phosphorus and potash, and their suitable combinations for best results on such important crops as jute have been determined.

In the field of plant genetics, jute seeds have been subjected to gamma irradiation and promising experiments

*Patient being measured for thyroid iodine-*131 *at Medical Radio-isotope Centre, in Dacca.*



have been done to produce a seed with better yields. Research has also been carried out at these centres in relation to such problems as the application of sterile male technique for eradication of fruit flies.

The commission has set up medical centres in some of the principal towns of Pakistan, where atomic techniques are being used in the diagnosis and treatment of disease. The centres at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca, among other things, carry out curative work such as cancer treatment. Research using radio-isotopes is unravelling the secrets of diseases.

Other Research Bodies: In recent years a number of research councils dealing with other vital sectors of science and technology were formed. These research organizations were to fill gaps in relation to agriculture, medicine, housing and irrigation. They are:

- — Agricultural Research Council.
- — Medical Research Council.
- — Council of Housing and Works.
- — Irrigation, Drainage and Water-logging Council.

These four organizations are still in the formative stage but, in due course, they will be equipped to conduct research in their respective disciplines.

National Science Council: National Science Council, with its co-ordinating and advisory role, completes the structure of scientific research in Pakistan. The Government has also created an agency of its own, called the Scientific and Technological Research Division, to care for the needs of scientific research and overall promotion of science in the country. Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission and National Science Council are in its charge.

National Health Laboratories: The Rs. 20.5-million project of National Health Laboratories at Islamabad is nearing completion. A number of sections have been accommodated in impressive buildings covering an area of 222,000 sq. ft. Technical equipment and services have been installed in the National Health Centre which is part of the whole project.

The laboratories undertake medical research in relation to the eradication of communicable diseases and improvement in the health of the nation. Research in these laboratories will also concentrate on such vital problems as the control of population through family planning, devising ways and means of efficiently checking sub-standard drugs and in providing assistance for major health programmes.

Medical Research: A Public Health Research Institute at Dacca is carrying out research in public health, nutrition, pathology, malariology and drugs as well as on the value of tropical medicines, indigenous herbs, and pharmacopoeial preparations used in unani, ayurvedic and homoeopathic practice.

Cholera: A Cholera Research Laboratory has been established at the Public Health Institute at Dacca and is carrying out research work on the epidemiology of cholera.

Family Planning: The National Research Institute of Family Planning at Karachi is conducting research on the approaches and techniques to be employed in the family planning programme. In addition, five research-*cum*-training institutes for family planning have also been set up in other areas.

Nutrition: A directorate has been created in the Ministry of Health for country-wide survey of nutrition. In East Pakistan, the first round of the survey was completed in 1964. In West Pakistan, Food Analysis and Nutrition Research Laboratory at Lahore is carrying out this work. Two more such laboratories are being established at Quetta.

Other Institutions: An important research institution is the Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre at Karachi. It is equipped to carry out research in, among others, mental retardation, heart disease, rheumatism, paralysis and nutrition.

Associations: The Pakistan Association for the Advancement of Science was established in December, 1947. Among its activities, the association organizes a science conference every year. Eminent foreign, as well as Pakistani, scientists are invited, and they have an opportunity to discuss their activities. The association promotes scientific research by the award of research fellowships and overseas scholarships.

The Scientific Society of Pakistan, likewise, holds its annual conference on a similar pattern, where Urdu, one of the national languages, is the medium of expression.

The Pakistan Academy of Sciences was inaugurated in February 1954 and is another national organization concerned with the advancement of science. Its aims include promotion of research, publication of scientific journals, establishment of scientific libraries, laboratories and institutions, award of fellowships, scholarships, prizes and medals for scientific research.

Pakistan Association of Scientists and Scientific Professions was established about seven years ago with the aims of popularizing science, getting recognition of the work of scientists, securing due status and emoluments for scientific workers.

Universities: Most of the general universities in Pakistan are doing advanced research work. The two agricultural universities and the two engineering and technological universities, all established in 1961, lay special emphasis on research activities. In Lyallpur Agricultural University, for instance, it is obligatory for all members of faculties to devote at least 25 per cent of their time to their own research. Secondly, all post-graduate students have to undertake research on approved problems and prepare theses on them. Among the general universities, the Dacca University has recently procured modern equipment for all departments and advanced research is being conducted in chemistry, biochemistry and physics. The University has a few nuclear scientists who are working in collaboration with the Atomic Energy Commission. UNESCO has recently decided to set up two advanced science centres, one on chemical crystolography and the other on solid state physics. The Karachi

University is doing significant research in the fields of Biochemistry, Botany and Zoology.

Documentation Centre: Realizing the importance of scientific documentation to promotion of science and technology, the PCSIR established the Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) at Karachi with the assistance of UNESCO in 1957. The centre provides scientific and technical information services in the form of document procurement, bibliography, abstracting and translations. Two regional centres have also been established.

Journals: The research work of the Council and other organizations is published in the *Pakistan Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research* and *Scientific Research* which are published quarterly in West and East Pakistan, respectively. The *Science & Industry* is also published by the CSIR and contains articles of technological interest, a brief description of processes evolved by CSIR, and other material. Periodical reports of activities in the country are also published. A number of popular science journals, namely, the *Science Chronicle* in English, *Karwan-i-Science* in Urdu and *Purugami Biggan* in Bengali are also published by the Council. The Atomic Energy Commission publishes a quarterly journal, *Nucleus*.

Workshop of the Engineering University, Lahore.



Health

THE IMPORTANCE attached to health in Pakistan can be judged by the fact that the expenditure on this sector in the Third Five-Year Plan is three times as much as in the Second. By 1985, the State expects to provide basic medical facilities for the entire population of the country, which is estimated to reach over 190 million in that year.

Administration: The provincial Governments, with the help of the local authorities, deal with health administration. The Central Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare and its attached departments, such as the Directorate of Central Health, Establishments and Stores, the Directorate of Tuberculosis Control, the Malaria Eradication Board and the Nutrition Directorate, co-ordinate policy.

Professional organizations like the Pakistan Medical Council and Pakistan Nursing Council, work in co-operation with the Central and provincial Governments. About 35 per cent of the 17,000 doctors in Pakistan are in private practice or are employed by business or commercial firms. There also are many private hospitals and clinics, some of which are set up by missionaries.

In the two decades since Independence, the Government has made increasing efforts to improve medical facilities. The number of registered doctors has risen from 1,200 to almost 17,000, the number of hospital beds increased from 15,000 to about 38,000 and the ratio of nurses to hospital beds has improved from 1:75 to 1:9.

The Third Plan has the following guiding principles and aims:

(a) to ensure that essential health

services are available to everyone;

(b) to place special emphasis on public health and develop an integrated health service;

(c) to set up comprehensive regional health organization, particularly in rural areas, so that all health programmes can be properly implemented and supervised;

(d) until such integration of health services is achieved, to have campaign-type health programmes for such diseases as malaria and tuberculosis;

(e) to institute industrial health programmes, nutritional programmes and child health and maternity services for the benefit of special groups;

(f) to train people to carry out health programmes and services;

(g) to increase medical personnel in rural and semi-urban areas;

(h) to set up an efficient statistical and record-keeping system in order both to plan ahead and to evaluate the effectiveness of existing health services;

(i) to consolidate and gradually expand curative services;

(j) to take the lead in improving environmental sanitation and nutritional standards;

(k) to adopt special measures to control the rapid rise in population;

(l) to induce local communities to participate actively in the formulation and implementation of health programmes in their areas.

Doctors: Pakistan, in common with many other countries, has a shortage of doctors. In spite of an annual turnout of 1,000 doctors from the 12 medical colleges in the country, the total numbers around 17,000 for a population of about 123 million, which works out to an average of one doctor for over 7,000 people. The actual range varies from one doctor for every 700 people in the big cities to one doctor for 10,000 to 20,000 people in the country.

Nurses: There are over 4,500 trained nurses in Pakistan, that is, one to every 27,500 people or one to every nine hospital beds. The annual turnout from the 26 training centres is about 350.

Hospitals: There are about 38,000 hospital beds, which works out to one bed for every 3,200 people. By 1970, this number is expected to rise to over 48,000. Hospitals provide diagnosis, treatment, food and accommodation. Specialized treatment for complicated diseases is available at certain clinics and the larger hospitals. Government hospitals, which are free, usually have six resident doctors and have arrangements for the services of consultants.

Dispensaries: There are dispensaries throughout the country with an average of one per 50,000 people. They have doctors who may be consulted for a nominal fee and are well-stocked with general medicines.

Rural Health Centres: Since the vast majority of the population lives in villages, rural health schemes are of prime importance. Over 200 such health centres were set up during the Second Plan period. By 1970, 660 more centres are to be added. Each centre consists of a primary unit with three

sub-centres and provides medical aid for 60,000 people. The primary unit is composed of a doctor, a health visitor, a health laboratory technician and auxiliary staff; the sub-centre is composed of a compounder-dresser, a nurse-dai, a peon-*cum*-medicine carrier, a health assistant and a cleaner.

The following table indicates the expected increase in the number of personnel and institutions by the end of the Third Plan:

TABLE I

		1965[1]	1970[2]
Doctors			
	Number	15,600	19,800
	Ratio	1:7,200 people	1:6,650 people
Medical Colleges		12	14
Nurses			
	Number	3,600	5,400
	Ratio	1:10 hospital beds	1:9 hospital beds
		1:31,200 people	1:24,400 people
Hospital Beds			
	Number	35,500	48,300
	Ratio	1:3,170 people	1:2,850 people
Rural Health Centres			
	Number	200	860
Lady Health Visitors			
	Number	1,047	2,750
Training Centres for Lady Visitors		8	10
TB Clinics			
	Number	96	181
	Beds	2,500	3,450
	Ratio	1:50 TB deaths	1:35 TB deaths

[1] Population estimate: 112.4 million

[2] Population estimate: 131.7 million.

Disease Control:

Tuberculosis: Tuberculosis is essentially a disease that springs from poverty. About 4 per cent of the population have radiological evidence of tuberculosis in their lungs and there are over 100,000 open cases of tuberculosis in the country. The Government realizes that, in order to combat the disease, the standard of living must be raised and habits of cleanliness instilled; but this is a slow process and, meanwhile, the problem is being tackled at the preventive level as follows:

(a) Under a mass BCG vaccination programme, which was launched in 1949, 58 million people have so far been tested and 27 million vaccinated.
(b) Two BCG assessment units, one in each Wing, have been set up to assess the effectiveness of the programme.
(c) A BCG vaccine production laboratory has also been set up; this will supply the vaccine and tuberculin for the programme.
(d) A 20-year master plan has been prepared. Its main feature is to provide preventive and curative services to the rural areas as well as to cities and towns by integrating the tuberculosis service with other public health and medical services.

The aim of the master plan is to have 1,900 TB clinics by 1985, which will mean at least one clinic for every 100,000 people.

Two research hospitals, each with 100 beds, are being set up at Dacca and Rawalpindi. In these cities, a pilot TB project has been started whose aim is to determine the future approach towards control and cure of the disease.

During 1967-68, 25 BCG vaccination teams and one BCG research and assessment team were working in West Pakistan, while 16 BCG vaccination teams and one BCG assessment team were working in East Pakistan. In the same period 4,105,306 BCG vaccinations and 708,276 BCG tests were carried out in the country.

Cholera: Cholera claims the lives of over 25,000 people annually, mostly in East Pakistan, where the disease is endemic. For want of proper medical treatment, over 30 per cent of the total patients die.

A cholera research laboratory was established at Dacca in 1960. The experiment, though limited in range, proved highly successful, and of the 1,000 people treated in its 20-bed ward, 99 per cent were cured. The new methods employed to combat the disease include antibiotic therapy, but the whole system of treatment is being simplified so that it can be worked in both urban and rural areas.

The laboratory studies the conditions of living and sanitation of the people as well as the causes and progress of the disease. It conducts clinical research to determine whether physical differences make some people more susceptible to cholera than others, and the physiological changes that occur in those who catch the disease.

There was an outbreak of cholera in Karachi in August 1967 and there were five deaths in the 39 cases recorded. A

mass-inoculation programme was launched in the city to keep the disease under control.

Smallpox: This is another endemic disease which is generally found in East Pakistan. Following 15,048 cases with 9,508 deaths in 1959, a pilot project was started in the districts of Comilla and Faridpur in 1960. A two-year eradication programme followed and the results were fairly encouraging, with the incidence of death falling from 63 to 43 per cent.

Pakistan is participating in the intensified Global Programme for the Eradication of Smallpox and a new eradication campaign was launched in East Pakistan in December 1967. During 1967-68, there were 9,573 cases and 4,114 deaths due to smallpox, while the figures for cholera were 378 cases and 184 deaths.

Strict measures have been adopted to prevent the issue of incorrect International Vaccination Certificates. Medical officers have been asked to be particularly vigilant so as to minimize the chances of exporting such diseases as smallpox and cholera to other countries.

Leprosy: It is estimated that there are over 100,000 cases of leprosy in the country, the majority of which are in East Pakistan, and about 25 per cent of them are infectious. Under the guidance of a WHO expert, the Leprosy Control Project, which incorporates four operational areas to which are added four mobile clinics, provides treatment at over 200 places. There are two static clinics at Dacca and Nilphamari, each with 20 beds and an outpatient department.

Two new rehabilitation centres have recently begun functioning in East Pakistan, one in Sylhet and the other in Nilphamari. The latter centre will eventually be transformed into a constructive surgery attached to the static clinic.

In West Pakistan, there is a hospital in Karachi with 200 beds which receives substantial grants from the Central Government. Balakot, in the northern part of the province, has an asylum with 50 beds.

Plague: In view of the incidence of plague in India and some other countries of South East Asia, all authorities concerned have been asked by WHO to take immediate steps to launch a deratization programme in all cities and grain market areas and to keep a close watch on cases in a febrile condition, particularly those with a bubo in the groin. Pakistan is participating in this programme.

Mental Illness: There are five mental hospitals with about 2,000 beds. In addition, some general hospitals offer preliminary mental treatment. The number of people who suffer from psychiatric disorders is estimated to be about 175,000, but precise figures are not available for the number of actual mental patients. The vast majority of known cases are in urban areas.

Malaria Eradication: Malaria is one of the biggest killers, accounting for over 250,000 lives every year. Twenty million people, that is, almost one-fifth of the population of the country, have occasional attacks of malaria which, on

an average, incapacitates them for six working days and hinders their full working capacity for two months a year. This amounts to a wastage of 960 million work-hours and underutilization of 1,200 million work-days.

The Malaria Eradication Programme, which began in 1961, aims at providing protection against malaria to the whole country. By 1967, 98 million people were provided some form of protection against the disease.

The Malaria Eradication Board, an autonomous central organization, formulates policy for the whole country and divides it into regions, zones, sectors and sub-sectors. The four phases of the programme are as follows:

(a) Preparatory phase, in which recruitment and training of staff is carried out and a house-to-house census is initiated to pinpoint the areas where the disease is most common. This phase lasts a year.
(b) Attack phase, in which every roofed structure is sprayed just before the beginning of the malaria season while malaria cases are given treatment. This phase lasts three to four years.
(c) Consolidation phase, in which the spraying is stopped but the house-to-house search for malaria cases and their treatment is intensified in order to eliminate the last remnants of the disease in that particular area. This phase lasts three years.
(d) Maintenance phase, in which the programme is gradually tapered off and the results passed on to the local health services, whose responsibility it then becomes.

Since the programme was started, the incidence of malaria has been falling rapidly. In the district of Dinajpur, the disease has already been eradicated and the consolidation phase begun.

The Third Plan allocated Rs. 270 million for the eradication of malaria, of which Rs. 108 million were spent up to 1966-67. The following table shows the progress of the Malaria Eradication Programme by 1966-67:

TABLE II

Phase	Population covered (millions)	Districts covered
1. *Preparatory*		
East Pakistan	13.5	3
West Pakistan	2.6	2
Total	16.1	5
2. *Attack*		
East Pakistan	26.9	9
West Pakistan	29.6	31
Total	56.5	40
3. *Consolidation*		
East Pakistan	13.7	5
West Pakistan	11.9	6
Total	25.6	11
Grand Total	98.2	56

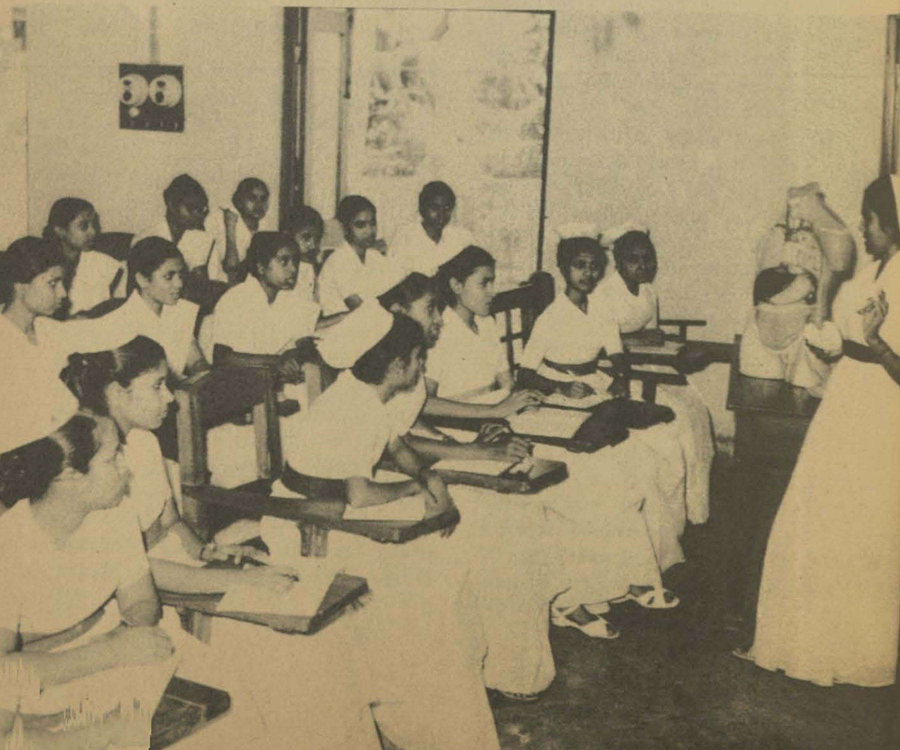
Drugs Control: The control of drugs within the country comes under the Health Division with a Drugs Controller at Islamabad and Assistant Drugs Controllers at Karachi, Dacca,

Chittagong and Lahore. During the period 1967-68, the following measures were taken by the Drugs Control Administration:

(a) 2,366 clearance certificates for imported drugs were issued. The total value of these drugs and medicines amounted to Rs. 28,907,499.
(b) 405 Import Licences were issued.
(c) 311 samples were tested in the Central Drugs Laboratory, of which 283 were passed and 26 rejected.
(d) 12 'No Objection Certificates' worth Rs. 227,000 were issued to exporters for the export of drugs and medicines.
(e) Arrangements were made to set up a regional drugs laboratory at Chittagong at a cost of Rs. 1.03 million.
(f) A drugs research institute is to be set up at Islamabad before 1970 at a cost of Rs. 1.5 million.

Medical Education: Pakistan has 12 medical colleges which produce over 1,000 graduates every year. All these colleges have attached teaching hospitals. Two more medical colleges are to be established during the Third Plan period. Among the existing institutions, Fatima Jinnah Medical College at Lahore is for women only and also admits foreign students. The basic graduation course for medicine and

Nurses training at Dacca.



surgery, which is of a high international standard, extends over five years, following 12 years of schooling.

There are two post-graduate medical centres at Karachi and Dacca, respectively. They offer the M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees in basic subjects and the F.C.P.S. (Pak) in clinical subjects. Dacca is to have a school for tropical medicine shortly, and the Institute of Hygiene and Preventive Medicine at Lahore has been enlarged. At both Dacca and Lahore, there are courses to train graduates for the primary Fellowship of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of England and Edinburgh.

The recently established College of Physicians and Surgeons examines graduates in clinical subjects. The examination is conducted in the manner of the British Royal College and the subjects taught for the Fellowship and Membership include medicine, surgery, gynaecology, obstetrics, and pediatrics.

Nursing as a profession is now becoming popular and there are 26 nursing schools attached to the larger hospitals, which offer a three-year course and also provide facilities for training in midwifery and gynaecology. Para-medical personnel are being trained in laboratory methods at the Karachi Post-graduate Centre so that they can supervise various technical departments and be of assistance in research work. They will be taught radiotherapy and physiotherapy, and will specialize in various fields, including blood bank and health laboratory work.

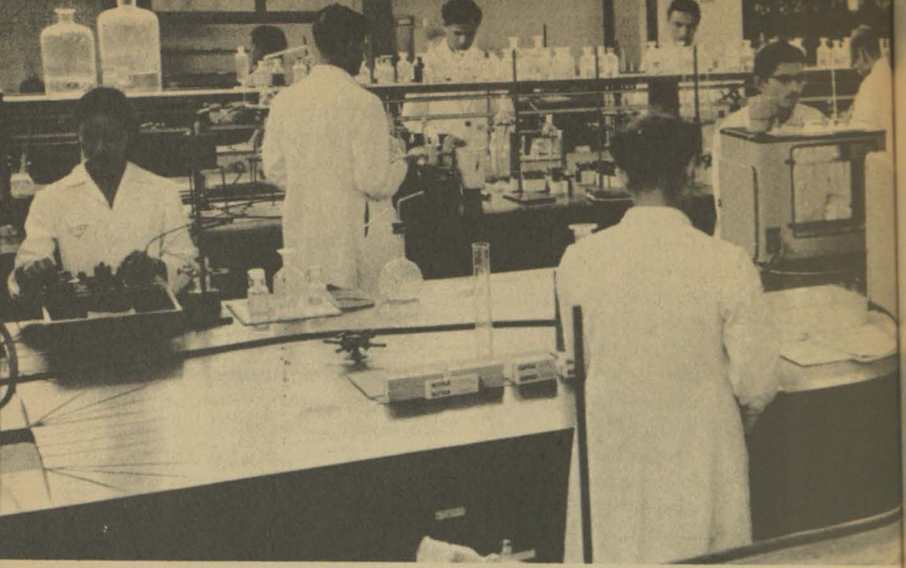
Health technicians, sanitary inspectors and rural health inspectors are being trained at Dacca, Bahawalpur and Quetta. At Islamabad, there is a school of medical technology for training laboratory technicians.

Medical Research: The Pakistan Medical Research Council, which was formed in 1953 and reorganized in 1962, organizes, co-ordinates and promotes research in order to advance medical science and benefit the public. It publishes a quarterly journal entitled *The Pakistan Journal of Medical Research.* Research is also carried out by the Cholera Institute at Dacca, the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre and the Institute of Public Health at Dacca.

The National Health Laboratories, recently established at Islamabad, carry out research on such subjects as public health, nutrition and indigenous herbs. The laboratories also have a separate Drug Research Institute with divisions for microbiology, pharmacology, clinical pharmacology, pharmaceutical chemistry and pharmacognosy, and arrangements for pilot plant testing of the industrial production of new therapeutic drugs for home consumption and for export.

Training Abroad: Thirty-seven qualified persons were sent abroad in 1967-68 for higher studies under the following fellowship programmes.

(1) Colombo Plan Fellowship	13
(2) WHO Fellowship	13
(3) Commonwealth Fellowship	4
(4) CENTO Fellowship	2
(5) RCD Fellowship	2
(6) US AID	1
(7) Netherlands Fellowship	2
Total:	37



A pharmaceutical laboratory in West Pakistan.

Indigenous Medical Systems and Homoeopathy: In Pakistan, where the majority of the population lives in rural areas, indigenous methods of treatment can be particularly important. The shortage of qualified doctors is a contributing factor. The Ayurvedic, Unani and Homoeopathic systems of medicine are much in demand in the smaller towns and villages, and the Government has recognized them but, at the same time, it has taken steps to weed out quacks and various forms of malpractice.

The practitioners of indigenous systems of medicine are required to register themselves with their respective medical boards, whose members have been nominated for three years, after which they will be replaced by elected members for a five-year period.

The Tibbi Registration Board has approved almost 50 Unani and Ayurvedic medical organizations and has registered about 350 practitioners. The Board of the Homoeopathic System of Medicine has approved 10 homoeopathic colleges and has issued some 5,000 registration certificates to practising homoeopaths.

Following their official recognition, all these systems are busily reorganizing and improving themselves. The Board of Unani and Ayurvedic systems has begun a scheme for a pharmacopoeia of these systems. Th's is in accordance with the Government view that the country should compile its own pharmacopoeia, since there are many indigenous drugs which may be used as cheap substitutes for imported drugs and which may even suit the local population better. All the three systems have a four-year course for matriculates.

Family Planning

AN EFFECTIVE, nation-wide Family Planning Programme was launched under the Third Five-Year Plan in the latter part of 1965. The need for population control was originally recognized in the First Plan, which contained an allocation of Rs. 500,000 for family planning. The Second Plan included a major scheme estimated to cost Rs. 30.5 million. This scheme, which provided for a national research institute of family planning and for training doctors, lady health visitors, nurses and midwives to run 4,000 family planning clinics, laid the groundwork for the current programme. An allocation of Rs. 284 million has been made in the Third Plan for the implementation of the programme.

As a means of population control, family planning is an integral part of national economic policy. Of the total population of over 125 million, about 20 per cent is underemployed or unemployed, 45 per cent is below the age of 15 and 80 per cent is illiterate. Amenities of life, particularly housing facilities in urban areas, are short of requirements. Pressure on productive resources is high, the average land holding in East Pakistan being as low as 3.5 acres. The density of population in East Pakistan is over 1,000 per square mile, in a total area of 55,126 square miles. The rate of population growth is about 3 per cent per annum, the mortality rate having come down to 20 per thousand.

The purpose of all economic planning, it is believed, would be completely defeated and an explosion would occur if this rate of growth was not checked. The objective of the family planning programme is to reduce the annual birth rate from 50 to 40 per thousand during 1965-70 in order to

correct the imbalance in the age structure of the population, to attain self-sufficiency in food, and to maintain the planned level of increase in the per capita income. This is to be achieved by covering most of the 20 million fertile couples under the programme by 1970. Continuation of the programme after 1970 is expected to reduce the birth rate to 35 per thousand during the Perspective Plan period (1965-85).

A machinery has been created to execute the programme. At the top is the Central Family Planning Council, headed by the Health Minister and run by the Family Planning Commissioner, which is concerned with policy-making, co-ordination of activities, evaluation of results and research. The two provincial Planning Boards, headed by the respective provincial Health Ministers, are responsible for the implementation of the programme. There is a similarly organized board in each district which guides and helps the Executive/Publicity Officer in taking physical steps to carry out the programme:

(a) setting up clinics and mobile units with technical, administrative and publicity personnel and material;
(b) appointment of doctors, health visitors and midwives as Family Planning Advisers for sub-divisions in the district;
(c) arrangement of suitable facilities for the training programmes fixed by the Provincial Boards;
(d) registration of village *dais* (midwives) and all available private medical practitioners for supplying contraceptives and for coil insertion;
(e) distribution of conventional contraceptives through shops, *dais* and hospitals;
(f) collection of statistics and information for the evaluation of results.

Thana (sub-divisional) Councils in East Pakistan and Union Councils in West Pakistan carry out such of the foregoing functions as are entrusted to them by the District Family Planning Boards.

Under the District Executive/Publicity Officers are several sub-divisional officers (Tehsil Supervisors in West Pakistan and Thana Family Planning Officers in East Pakistan) who publicize family planning, organize motivational activities and assist the village *dais* and other agents in their work. The *dais* (30 under each Supervisor/Officer) are the chief instrument in the family planning programme. They contact the fertile couples direct, distribute contraceptives and motivate them by removing doubts and hesitations.

There are about 40,000 trained men and women engaged in the programme. Of these about 2,500 are full-time employees receiving adequate salaries. Besides, there are 53,000 registered agents who sell contraceptives. The programme envisages the appointment of 1,000 supervisors in West Pakistan and 400 thana officers, each with 3 assistants, in East Pakistan, 30,000 *dais* in East Pakistan and 20,000 in West Pakistan, and a total of 2,400 part-time doctors for IUD insertion and vasectomy; the establishment of 37 whole-time clinics in West Pakistan and 16 in East Pakistan, 400 part-time clinics in East Pakistan and 318 in West Pakistan.

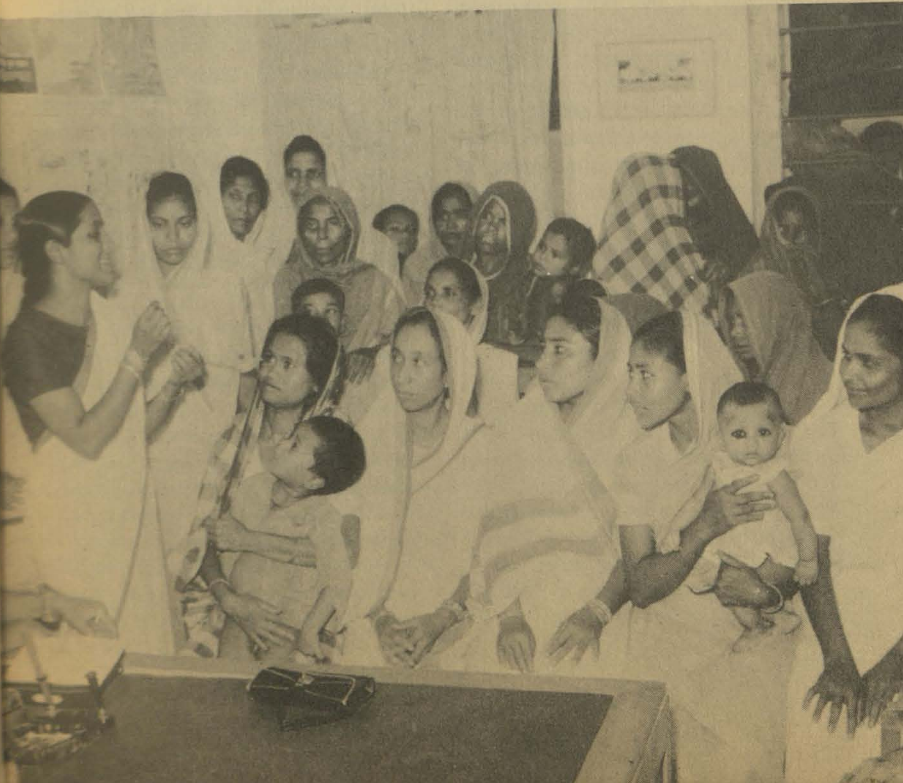
The strategy of the programme lays emphasis on motivation, environ-

mental encouragement, publicity and easy availability of contraceptive materilas and medical advice. A highlight of the motivational effort is the provision of handsome monetary incentives for doctors and *dais* who perform or arrange an IUD insertion or vasectomy.

In the first year of the Third Plan, factors like deep-rooted prejudice and inhibitions of the common people hampered the programme. Quite satisfactory results have, however, been recorded during the last two years — 1966-67 and 1967-68. By the end of 1967, IUD insertions totalled about 1.2 million or 40 per cent of the five-year target of 3 million insertions, the monthly average during the last six months of 1967 rising to 59,000. For the following six months the monthly average is estimated to be above 65,000. The total of vasectomy operations by April 1968 stood at 250,000.

The number of conventional contraceptive units distributed through various agencies up to the end of 1967 was over 210 million; the monthly sale of oral contraceptives was estimated to be about 50,000 cycles. The total population covered by different contraceptive methods is estimated to range between 2.1 and 2.3 million couples. It is calculated that by these measures, birth potential has been reduced by 856,000 in East Pakistan and by 816,000 in West Pakistan.

A family planning centre at Faridpur, East Pakistan.



Manpower

ACCORDING to the 1961 population, census 30.2 million persons, or one-third of the population, constituted the civilian labour force of the country: this is to say that this number was 10 years of age or over and was either employed or looking for work. Of these, over 26.4 million, or 87.5 per cent, were male and the rest female.

A little over 306,000, or one per cent of the labour force, were not working but registered as looking for work. Of these over 8,000 were women.

According to estimates made by the Planning Commission, the labour force increased by about 3.6 million during 1960-65, or at the rate of 720,000 per year. The rate will keep rising and during the five years, 1965-70, the increase will be in the order of 4.2 million, or at the rate of 840,000 annually. A later estimate places the total increase in the 1960s at 9 million.

Deployment: In 1961, a little under three-quarters of the total civilian labour force were engaged in agriculture, of which 72.2 per cent were tillers of the soil, and 2.35 per cent were agriculturists other than tillers. Women's participation was the highest (85.3 per cent) in agricultural pursuits.

Province-wise, the percentage of the agricultural labour force to the civilian labour force was much higher in East Pakistan (91.6 per cent) than in West Pakistan (70.45 per cent). The non-agricultural labour force in East Pakistan was very low (8.4 per cent against 29.55 per cent in West Pakistan). Agricultural employment was almost entirely confined to rural areas. The highest percentage of the agricultural labour force claimed by a city was 3.25.

A considerable change has been taking place in the sectoral deployment of labour. Growing industries are claiming an increasing percentage, and the overwhelming dependence on agriculture has, accordingly, been declining.

The Third Five-Year Plan is carrying the change even further. The 5.5 million new jobs to be created during 1965-70 will be in the following proportion:

Agriculture	45.5%
Mining	Negligible
Manufacturing	17.3%
Construction	11.8%
Trade and Services, including transport and communications	25.4%

Unemployment: The unemployment figure of the country, according to the census of population was about 306,000 or about one per cent of the total labour force. These figures do not take account of a high degree of under-employment in agriculture, traditional manufacturing, construction, trade and services. The Third Plan estimated that in 1965, about 20 per cent of the labour force was not used for any productive purpose. It aims at reducing this unemployment to 15 per cent by 1970.

The Second Plan was, for the first time, able to match the increased labour force with new job opportunities. The 3.6 million addition to the labour force over the period was fully absorbed. In the period 1965-70, it is expected that new employment opportunities will for the first time exceed the net increase in the labour force, by a fairly wide margin.

Requirements: While there is a surplus of labour at lower levels, there is, characteristically, a scarcity of skilled hands.

At the degree level, the shortage is highest in the education sector, and in technical education most of all.

The above estimates do not cover the output of those institutions which train their own employees.

Labour Policy: Labour was a concurrent subject until 1962, when the new Constitution made it a provincial subject. As such, all legislation in this sphere is now the responsibility of the provincial Governments, except for matters relating to subjects enumerated in the Third Schedule to the Constitution, which are exclusively the concern of the Central Government. The Central Government, however, keeps a watch over the labour situation for the purpose of co-ordination and for meeting international obligations.

The new Government that came to power in 1958 announced its revised labour policy in 1959, which embodies, *inter alia*, the following:

— sound relationship between employers and employees.
— industrial peace;
— provision of social amenities to workers of all categories;
— growth of healthy trade unionism;
— reduction of unemployment in the country;
— research and collection of information concerning working and living conditions of workers;
— encouragement of social welfare amenities in a co-operative manner: welfare cesses may be imposed on

establishments for this purpose;
- — welcoming technical assistance in the field of labour from friendly countries;
- — the labour policy of the Government will be based on ILO conventions and other recommendations ratified by Pakistan.

Legislation: Pakistan inherited a substantial code of labour laws from British India. The new laws enacted in pursuance of the revised policy included the Coal Mines (Fixation of Wages) Ordinance, 1960; the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961; the Minimum Wages Ordinance, 1961; the Tea Plantations Labour Ordinance, 1952; the Apprenticeship Ordinance, 1962; the Employees Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962; and the West Pakistan Employees Social Security Ordinance, 1965. Labour laws enacted since July 1965 are: the East Pakistan Inland Transport (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Trade Union Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Shops and Establishments Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965; and the Factories (West Pakistan Amendment) Ordinance, 1966.

Two new laws were enacted by the Central Government in June 1967: (1) the Excise Duty on Minerals (Labour Welfare) Act, 1967, and (2) the Mines (Amendment) Act, 1967. The first will, on coming into force, repeal the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1947. It empowers the Government to levy excise duty on such minerals as coal, limestone, gypsum, sandstone, stone and silica, at the rate of between fifty paisas and one rupee per ton, to finance measures for promoting the welfare of labour employed in the mining industry. The Mines (Amendment) Act, 1967, has been enacted in order to give effect to an ILO Convention ratified by Pakistan.

ILO Conventions: Pakistan became a member of the ILO almost immediately after its inception and has since been closely associated with its activities. Pakistan has so far ratified 29 ILO conventions — a figure not yet achieved by any other country in Asia and the Middle East, except India. Some of the conventions ratified by Pakistan are those concerned with: freedom of association and protection of the right to organize (Convention of 1948); right to organize and to bargain collectively (1949); night work by women (1919); underground work by women (1935); hours of work and industry (1919); night work by young persons in industry (1919); labour inspection in industry and commerce (1947); and the forced labour Convention (1930).

A tripartite conference is held annually between representatives of labour, employers and the Central and provincial Governments to discuss labour and management problems and Government policies.

Manpower Council: In pursuance of a Second Five-Year Plan recommendation, a National Manpower Council was set up in 1962. It is headed by the Minister of Health, Labour and Social Welfare, and includes members from the Planning Division, all important ministries, the two provinces, and from the Railway Boards. The functions of

the council are:

(a) evolving policies and programmes for the development and utilization of human resources;

(b) devising programmes for meeting requirements of trained personnel, on the one hand, and of productive employment for the surplus labour and youth, on the other;

(c) drawing up schemes for improved utilization of labour through better management and the co-ordination of defence and civilian manpower uses:

(d) organizing the collection and analysis of basic data for manpower planning.

The Council is assisted by three specialized bodies:

1. The High-level Personnel Committee studies the needs and problems of high-level personnel, devises and pursues ways of meeting them and maintains a national register of these personnel, besides initiating a number of studies, such as those on salary structures and incentives, in selected occupations, and on employment potentials in the private sector.

2. The National Training Board looks after the provision of actual training facilities.

3. The Civil Works Board (Employment Promotion Board) deals with problems of surplus manpower.

Commission on Manpower and Education: Established in 1968, under the Chairmanship of Mr. G. Ahmad, and expected to submit its report in 1969 for careful consideration in the formulation of the Fourth Plan, this high-level commission is giving special attention to the following major policy issues:

(i) How to strengthen the base of the educational system through a rapid spread of primary education, so as to create a more literate population in the shortest possible time.

(ii) What kinds of skills are needed for future development, and how best can the requisite personnel with such skills be trained, in step with cumulative requirements, by adjusting the country's educational system?

(iii) At what ages and at what levels should students be screened according to their aptitude and ability and sent to vocational and polytechnic courses to acquire the right types of skill.

(iv) Should the entry to higher education be restricted, and if so, through what mechanism?

(v) Should there be abridged courses or crash programmes in certain technical fields to train middle level manpower at a rapid rate?

(vi) How to avoid the present large wastage in the educational system, particularly that due to high drop-out and failure rates and to the unemployment of trained personnel.

(vii) How to adjust the relative socio-economic as well as educational incentives to attract the right persons and skills to the right jobs.

Employment Services: Agencies are required to bring job vacancies and suitable job applicants together. At the middle and higher levels, this service is provided mostly by newspapers. The gap in Pakistan is at the lower levels, and also for the assistance of young people who need guidance as well as

employment.

The Government runs a number of employment exchanges whose activities are mainly devoted to lower category skilled jobs in urban areas. There are 20 such exchanges. In 1948, less than 5,000 persons were provided with jobs, but the yearly figure now is in the region of 80,000.

By wage groups, the highest percentage of jobs provided has usually gone to the Rs. 61 — 100 groups, which included petty clerks, bearers, cooks and others in the unskilled or semiskilled groups. This is followed by the Rs. 101 — 150 category, which in addition to skilled practioners of the above occupations, comprises such people as typists, chauffeurs, and shop assistants. The smallest is the Rs. 151 and above group.

The National Manpower Council runs a National Employment Bureau which helps such Pakistani residents in Pakistan or abroad as are technically qualified to get jobs both inside and outside the country. During 1965-66 it referred 7,290 applicants in different fields to countries in the Middle East and Africa, of which 1,805 were accepted. Nearly 400 highly qualified Pakistanis living abroad asked for the Bureau's assistance and some of them obtained employment through it.

Two Youth Employment Services, one in each wing, were started in 1964 under the Directorate-General of National Manpower. Up to the middle of 1966, this service had imparted group guidance to 3,500 boys and girls, of whom 1,300 were provided individual assistance in a choice of career. The guidance units have been handed over to the provincial Governments for operation and expansion.

To stimulate training activity, provincial Labour departments have set up 10 technical training centres at Dacca (2), Chittagong, Narayanganj, Rajshahi, Karachi, Gulberg, Moghalpura (in Lahore), Multan and Peshawar. They can each year train about 3,000 boys. At these centres more than 30 trades are taught. There are two courses: one of 18 months for matriculates, and the other of 12 months for non-matriculates. Ten more such centres are being set up.

In addition, a number of Government polytechnics and technical institutes conduct trade training courses on a part-time basis.

The most important effort to train manpower is by apprenticeship and in-plant training. In 1955, the Government set up a Directorate of Apprenticeship Training and a National Council of Apprenticeship Training. The aim was to introduce in-plant apprenticeship training on a voluntary basis, but under its scope only 385 apprentices were trained, 270 in Karachi and 115 in Dacca. The Government, therefore, issued an Apprenticeship Ordinance in 1962, which ensures that 25 per cent of the total working hours are assigned to theoretical instruction for the benefit of apprentices and that all enterprises employing 50 or more persons must take some apprentices.

The National Institute of Labour Administration Training was established in 1957. It organizes an in-service

training programme for the Central and provincial Governments and non-Government officers dealing with labour problems. The institute has so far organized 10 training courses, each of six months, and two short courses of three months each dealing with industrial relations.

Two Industrial Relations Institutes, at Dacca and Lahore, have been set up by the provincial Governments.

Conditions of Work: The terms of employment for agricultural labour are generally governed by tradition and by labour availability. As yet no specific legislation covers this class of worker, but the Trade Union and the Industrial Labour Disputes Laws are applicable to them by implication. Also, the West Pakistan Land Reforms Ordinance, 1959, has provided considerable security for tenants. The 1959 law requires the ground for ejectment to be first established in a revenue court before ejectment proceedings start.

Industrial and commercial workers' terms of employment and conditions of service are regulated by the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965 in East Pakistan, and the West Pakistan Industrial and Commercial Employment (Standing Orders) Ordinance, 1960, in West Pakistan. While the East Pakistan Act applies to all establishments, the Ordinance in West Pakistan excludes establishments employing less than 50 workers. The terms and conditions of service are regulated by law. Modifications can be made, in West Pakistan, only by a collective agreement between employers and trade unions, and, in East Pakistan, after being approved by an inspector appointed by the government.

Wages: These are generally subject to collective bargaining, and so they differ from one industry or occupation to another. However, to protect labourers in a weak bargaining position or those who do not have an organized trade union, the Minimum Wages Ordinance was promulgated in 1961. Under this, the provincial Governments regulate wages in industries on the recommendation of wage boards, which include representatives of employers and workers.

There are certain categories of workers whose conditions of work call for separate regulation. These include miners, seamen, and similar personnel. The Coal Mines (Fixation of Rates of Wages) Ordinance, 1960, fixed the minimum wage of the underground miners at Rs. 90 per month (calculated on the basis of 200 hours of work); and wages of surface workers at Rs. 60 a month.

The East Pakistan Minimum Wages Board has fixed minimum wages for workers in the cotton textile industry, match industry, jute textile industry, rubber industry and the aluminium and enamel industry. Wages in printing presses, rerolling mills, oil mills, vegetable product factories, and biscuit and confectionery factories have been referred to the Minimum Wages Board.

In West Pakistan, minimum wages in respect of transport, steel rerolling, cotton textile, wool, silk and rayon, leather goods and plastic products, sugar and ice manufacturing industries have been fixed.

The Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) Ordinance, 1960, provided for fixing rates of wages for the working journalists through a wage board constituted under this Ordinance. The Board fixed scales of pay and awarded various fringe benefits.

Persons in technical professions get technical pay, in addition to the normal salary. Low-paid workers in offices and organizations are paid for overtime work.

The average annual wage received by an industrial worker was Rs. 1,395 in 1965. The average by industry groups was as follows:

(Rounded rupees)

Industry	1965
Textile	1,348
(a) Cotton	1,352
(b) Other Textiles	1,341
Engineering	1,498
Minerals, Metals	1,646
Chemicals & Dyes	1,261
Paper & Printing	1,628
Wood, Stone & Glass	1,176
Skins & Hides	1,708
Ordnance	1,504
Mint	2,048
Miscellaneous	1,458
All industries	1,395

Source: Labour and Social Welfare Division.

Hours: On average, a factory worker in Pakistan is required to work nine hours a day and 48 hours a week. For children the daily average is five hours. Women work as long as the men. A worker is entitled to extra pay for overtime at double the ordinary rate. Double employment and overlapping of shifts is, however, prohibited. The working hours of the road transport workers are governed by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961.

The following table gives the hours worked in a week by workers during 1964.

AVERAGE OF HOURS WORKED IN A WEEK

Percentage of workers	Hours of work
4.83	less than 24
7.99	24-31
10.04	32-39
18.69	40-47
20.33	48-55
38.12	56 and above

Source: Central Statistical Office.

The highest, 56 and above hours, group includes agricultural labour whose hours of work are not regulated by law.

Several statutory provisions ensure the safety of workers. In West Pakistan, working conditions and safety measures for workers in factories are governed by the Factories Act, 1934, and in East Pakistan by the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965. The Acts provide for the regulation of such measures as precaution against fire, means of escape, fencing, specification of defective parts or test of stability of the building, safety of building and machinery, work near machinery in motion and prohibition of employment of women and children near cotton openers.

The Acts also empower the provincial Governments to make rules requiring additional provisions for health and safety measures for workers, for the provision of shelters during rest pauses and canteens in factories employing more than a specified number of workers.

For the safety of transport workers, the hours of driving and rest periods of the driver are regulated by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961.

The Tea Plantation Ordinance prohibits employment of children and women at irregular hours.

Inspection of factories is regularly carried out by Government inspectors to ensure that conditions for the safety of workers are being observed.

Health & Welfare: The Factories Act also lays down conditions for the health and welfare of employees. These include cleanliness of work rooms, adequate ventilation and suitable lighting, avoidance of over-crowding, proper sanitation, protection of workers from harmful dust, and provision of drinking-water and first aid.

The Tea Plantation Labour Ordinance, 1962 ensures reasonable sanitary, recreational, educational, medical and housing facilities to plantation workers. A Labour Welfare Division exists at Srimangal in East Pakistan, which is responsible for medical, educational and recreational facilities for 150,000 tea plantation workers.

A coal Miners' Labour Fund has been in existences since 1967, and provides numerous welfare facilities for coal mine workers. Two hospitals with mobile dispensaries and one welfare centre equipped with qualified staff are functioning. Educational facilities have also been provided for the children of workers.

A seamen's hostel with a capacity for 280 seamen has been set up at Chittagong. Another at Karachi port is to be established shortly, and it will have accommodation for 300 seamen. For the seamen's children, Government grants Rs. 10,000 in annual scholarships.

Labour welfare centres, as well as welfare centres for government employees, exist in important cities in both wings of Pakistan. These centres offer stipends to poor employees' children, maintain libraries and meet other incidental needs of workers and their families.

Social Security: The West Pakistan Social Security Ordinance, 1965 has been promulgated in place of the earlier legislation of the Central Government to similar effect (Employees Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962). This requires employers and employees to contribute 6 per cent of wages in the ratio of 2:1, to provide insurance cover for the employees against industrial injury, maternity and sickness. The East Pakistan Government is also expected to promulgate a similar ordinance.

Initially, social security has been introduced in the textile industry, and institutions have been set up at Karachi, Lyallpur, Hyderabad, Multan, Rawalpindi and Peshawar, where the textile

industry is concentrated. These institutions will collect contributions from the employers and the labourers. In the case of workers earning less than Rs. 2 a day, the entire contribution is to be made by the employers.

Some other factories have group insurance for workers and give provident fund benefits. The stevedoring firms at Karachi harbour, in co-operation with the workers' union, maintain a social welfare fund.

Holidays: Factory workers generally are entitled to 10 paid annual holidays, while children get four extra days. Workers are also entitled to 10 days casual and six days' medical leave and another 10 days festival holidays. Transport workers under the Road Transport Workers' Ordinance are entitled to 14 days holidays on full pay after one year's continuous service, or to seven days after six months' service.

Labour Relations: Labour relations in Pakistan have remained fairly normal. When differences or grievances develop, they are usually considered in accordance with the rules and procedures provided by legislation. The traditional distrust employers had of trade unions and other associations of labour has in most cases given way to acceptance of these organizations as a necessary and convenient means of ensuring good labour relations. Situations in which negotiations between employers and labour break down, with consequent stoppage of work, are now infrequent. The figures for the calendar years 1948 and 1957 and those for 1965 are indicative of this, bearing in mind that there has been an enormous expansion of industrial activity in the intervening period.

Trade Unions: Although the trade union movement in the Sub-continent dates back to 1890, its proper development took place after the First World War, when, due to rising prices, low wages and high profits, industrial unrest became widespread. At Independence, Pakistan began with very few industries and a total industrial labour force of not more than 450,000. Its trade unions were, therefore, few and even these not well organized. The number of registered trade unions in 1947 was 75, most of them in West Pakistan. At the end of 1958, the number had reached 621, with a membership of over 337,000.

In September 1967, there were 1,125 registered unions with a membership of 519,033. A significant fact is that the membership of these unions had remained stationary within a fixed range almost throughout the fifties although there was considerable increase in the number of trade unions; the new unions were thus no more than splinters of the old ones. Since then, however, there has been an appreciable rise in membership. Perhaps another 10 to 15 per cent of the labour force belongs to unregistered trade unions.

Most of the unions are situated in the bigger cities and towns, such as Dacca, Chittagong, Khulna, Karachi and Lahore, because they are the main industrial towns.

The unions are usually organized within individual establishments. The development of unionism either on the basis of craft or industry is not yet a common feature.

The formation and recognition of trade unions is regulated in West Pakistan by the Trade Union Act, 1926

as modified by the Trade Unions (Amendment) Ordinance, 1960, and, in East Pakistan, by the East Pakistan Trade Unions Act, 1965.

Under the West Pakistan Act, any seven or more members of a trade union can apply for the registration of a trade union by application to the Registrar of Trade Unions appointed by the provincial Government. Registered trade unions and their officers and members cannot be proceeded against under the law relating to criminal conspiracy in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purpose of furthering any object of the trade union, as also in respect of any act done in contemplation or furtherance of any industrial dispute.

Registered trade unions are required to maintain account books and lists of members, both open to inspection by any member of the union. They must submit to the provincial Government an annual return containing a statement of assets, liabilities, receipts and expenditures. The Trade Union Act provides that a trade union fulfilling conditions laid down by the Act must be recognized by the employer.

A list of unfair practices on the part of recognized trade unions and employers has also been laid down in the Act, the commitment of which may, on the part of workers, result in the cancellation of recognition, and, in the case of an employer, in punishment.

The East Pakistan Trade Unions Act makes almost similar provisions with the exception that (i) a trade union shall not be registered unless it has a minimum membership of 100 workers or 10 per cent of the total strength employed in the establishment or industry; and (ii) for the purposes of recognition, in the case of refusal by the employers, the trade union shall approach the Registrar of Trade Unions, as against the Industrial Labour Court provided for in the West Pakistan law.

All industrial workers, whether in Government or private establishments, are covered by these laws. The civil Government servants are, however, excluded from their purview. The formation of associations by them is regulated by separate administrative instructions issued by the Government.

Federation: While trade unions may be purely local, most of them are affiliated to central federations, such as the All-Pakistan Confederation of Labour, the All-Pakistan Federation of Labour, the Pakistan Mazdoor Federation.

Disputes: For a long time, industrial disputes in Pakistan were governed by the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947. The process for the settlement of disputes under the law was lengthy and rigid, and placed the employers in a more advantageous position than the worker. This Act was, therefore, repealed and replaced by the Industrial Disputes Ordinance, 1959.

The new ordinance provides for a procedure which works itself out more simply and more acceptably. As soon as a labour dispute takes place or is apprehended, the conciliation officer steps in. If no settlement is in sight, he issues a failure certificate, whereafter the parties are free to approach the Industrial Court. This court consists of a high-ranking judge and two emp-

loyers. Its award is also appealable to a High Court within a period of 30 days of its publication. While conciliation proceedings are pending, or when a dispute is being heard by an industrial court, no employer can alter the existing conditions of work or service.

The ordinance also provides for the institution of the "Works Committee" by every establishment employing 50 or more workers. The workers' representatives are required to be not less in number than those of the employer and must be chosen in consultation with the registered trade unions concerned, if any.

ILO Assistance: Pakistan has been receiving valuable assistance from the International Labour Organization, both in formulating policy and in implementing schemes.

Experts were assigned to Pakistan to study the organization and conditions of employment in general, conducting a survey of social security available to the labour; to help draft the Social Security Ordinance, later promulgated by the Government; to investigate labour problems; to help develop training within industry and the training of labour officials for cottage industries; and to assist in other problems of a similar character.

In addition, ILO has awarded a large number of fellowships to officials of the Government of Pakistan and other persons for specialized training in various subjects, such as social security, employment service organization, manpower problems, vocational training, road safety, cottage industries, industrial safety, industrial relations, foreman traineeship, personnel management, industrial welfare, labour administration, and small-scale and cottage industries.

Equipment has been provided from time to time for Government training centres, such as that for the marine diesel training centre at Narayanganj.

A recent activity entrusted to ILO is to act as executing agency for various projects of the United Nations Special Fund in the field of labour. Under the technical assistance programme of the Special Fund, ILO is assisting the Government of Pakistan in training management executives, marine diesel engineers, and general engineers and instructors for the rapidly growing industry of East Pakistan.

Pakistan at ILO: Except for the period 1954-57, Pakistan has been continuously represented on the Governing Body of the International Labour Organization since 1951, either as a titular member or as a deputy member. It has also been elected twice to the presidency of the ILO conference, in 1958 and 1965. Pakistan is a member of the Asian Advisory Committee and the Asian Regional Conference of the Organization. In addition, it is represented on the following three industrial Committees of ILO whose meetings are held periodically: (i) Textile Committee; (ii) Inland Transport Committee; and (iii) Committee on Work on Plantations.

The Chief of the Agriculture and Food Section of the Planning Commis-

sion of Pakistan has been appointed a member of the Permanent Agricultural Committee of ILO. This Committee is an advisory body of experts, and its main functions are to facilitate the actions of ILO in respect of social problems and to act as ILO's liaison with the agricultural world.

TABLE I

Civilian Labour Force According to 1961 *Census*

(Thousands)

	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total Population	90,283*	47,517	42,766
Civilian Labour Force Working	29,900	26,146	3,754
Seeking work	306	298	8
Total Civilian Labour Force	30,206	26,444	3,762

(*) *Revised estimates for the population in* 1961 *vary from* 94.5 *million to* 101.45 *million.*

TABLE II

Sectoral Employment

Industrial Group	January 1951	January 1961	January 1964
	(percentage of total labour force)	(percentage of employed labour force)	
Agriculture	76.45	74.55	69.36
Mining	0.04	0.07	0.12
Manufacturing	6.33	8.25	9.23
Construction	0.92	1.29	1.34
Transport and Trade & Services including Communications	16.40	15.78	19.95

Source: Central Statistical Office.

TABLE III

Third Plan Estimates of Trained Manpower in 1970

	Additional Requirements	Estimated Output	Shortfall (—) Excess (+)
Engineers	13,100	6,000	(—)7,100
Physical Scientists & Mathematicians	4,000*	9,550	(+)5,550
Agriculture graduates	5,300	4,700	(—)1,900
Physicians & Surgeons	4,200**	4,200	—

(*) Known requirements.
(**) Covers all additional public requirements and small increase in the private sector.

TABLE IV

Third Plan Estimate for Engineers: Diploma, Certificate and Below Certificate Level

Level of Training	Output of		Requirements	Shortage
	Formal Apprenticeship Schemes	Regular Training Institutions		
1. Three years' training after high school school	2,500	24,100	37,200	10,600
2. Less than three years' training after high school; and	1,400	19,200	330,000	205,700
Training of varying durations without high school qualifications	6,700	97,000	—	—

TABLE V

Work Stoppages at Factories

Year	Stoppages	Workers Involved	Man-days lost
1948	57	36,231	135,580
1957	150	188,001	810,601
1965	157	144,489	494,566

Source: Ministry of Labour.

Physical Planning and Housing

PAKISTAN has an old tradition of building well-planned towns and houses. The remains of the Indus Valley Civilization of about 5,000 years ago indicate a mastery of precise town planning. During the Mughal period, cities like Dacca and Lahore reached the high point of their development. However, in the mid-twentieth century the problem of housing has assumed a very different shape, and it has to be tackled after over two centuries of lost initiative.

The housing problem in Pakistan consists of the following elements:

(a) a population increase of roughly 3 million every year ;
(b) an urban growth proceeding at twice the rate of the over-all population increase ;
(c) a big carry-over of shortage in urban housing: of 540,000 in 1947, 600,000 in 1960, 950,000 in 1965, and an estimated 1.2 million in 1970;
(d) inflow of Muslim migrants from India in a regular stream, rising rapidly in times of crisis, such as 1947-48, 1951, 1955, 1961 and 1964-65. By 1951, the refugees numbered 10 per cent of the total population of Pakistan. The total number of such immigrants up to December 1966 was 10.5 million, equal to half the population of Australia.

Low income and high production costs add to the difficulty of keeping pace with these aggravating factors, which impinge mainly on urban areas.

In the 100,000 villages of Pakistan the problem generally is qualitative rather than quantitative. As for urban areas, for 1.6 million households there were hardly 1.4 million really habitable dwelling units in 1960, although including ramshackle shelters, the num-



A housing colony in East Pakistan.

ber of such units was estimated at 2.2 million.

In East Pakistan roughly 60 per cent of the dwelling units are made of bamboo and 30 per cent of ordinary timber; only 10 per cent are of brick. Climatic conditions are the main reason for this, but poverty is also a factor. In West Pakistan, roughly 70 per cent of existing dwellings, almost all of them in villages and belonging to the poor peasantry, are made of mud. Nearly 30 per cent are of brick. Shacks or *juggies* (bamboo and asbestos shelters) form the urban slums.

Administration : In the 30's, as cities were threatened by overcrowding, insanitary conditions and transport difficulties, statutory bodies, called improvement trusts, were created to look after planning and development. The first trust in the territories comprising Pakistan was set up in Lahore in 1936. Today, out of 31 cities with over 50,000 people, 22 cities have such trusts or development authorities. In addition, there are 109 urban municipal authorities. Three local author-

ities, at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore, have a complement of qualified staff for town planning and housing. Khulna and Chittagong authorities also undertake housing work. Other local bodies limit themselves to supplying drinking-water, providing drainage facilities, and building community houses. It is expected that these bodies will be in a position to develop 60,000 plots and 15,000 nucleus houses or flats — 5,000 in East Pakistan and 10,000 in West Pakistan.

In rural areas, district councils are responsible for housing development. The actual work is carried out by the union and thana/tehsil councils. In cities also, as municipal government develops, local planning and development functions may be entrusted to it.

In East Pakistan, the Public Works Department develops satellite towns for refugees and the general public, and executes the Government's own housing programme. The Planning Department controls physical and financial programme, and sets physical targets for various sectors. In West Pakistan, the Town Planning Department acts in an advisory capacity and prepares most of the satellite town schemes for the housing and settlement agency responsible for the rehabilitation of shelterless people.

The Central Government, through the Ministry of Agriculture and Works, is responsible for the Centrally-administered area, including the two federal capitals under construction, and the rehabilitation of refugees from India and Indian-held territories. The civil works authorities are Pakistan Public Works Department and the Capital Development Authority. Where necessary, the Government also provides funds, defines policies and undertakes basic research or investigation of problems common to both provinces.

Several Government departments and services, such as the Railways, Posts and Telegraphs, port authorities and irrigation and power development organizations, carry out independent housing programmes for their employees. Long-term national planning in this sphere is done by the Physical Planning and Housing Section of the Planning Commission.

Policy: State policies have been redefined and the whole machinery has been reinforced. Some of the points emphasized are:

- co-ordination of housing projects with development in agriculture, industry, transport and communication;
- socio-economic and technological gap between the city and the village to be reduced;
- private sector to share the major burden of constructing houses, and to be helped by tax concessions, credit facilities and liberal allocations of land;
- slum-dwellers, industrial workers and low-income groups to be assigned first priority and slum clearance work to be carried out in a scientific manner;
- rural immigrants to be given developed land free of cost with essential services and facilities, and these people to be encouraged to build their own temporary or permanent houses under technical supervision of the Government;



Industrial Area of Chittagong.

An industrial Area of Karachi.





Dacca Airport.

A panoramic view of Islamabad.



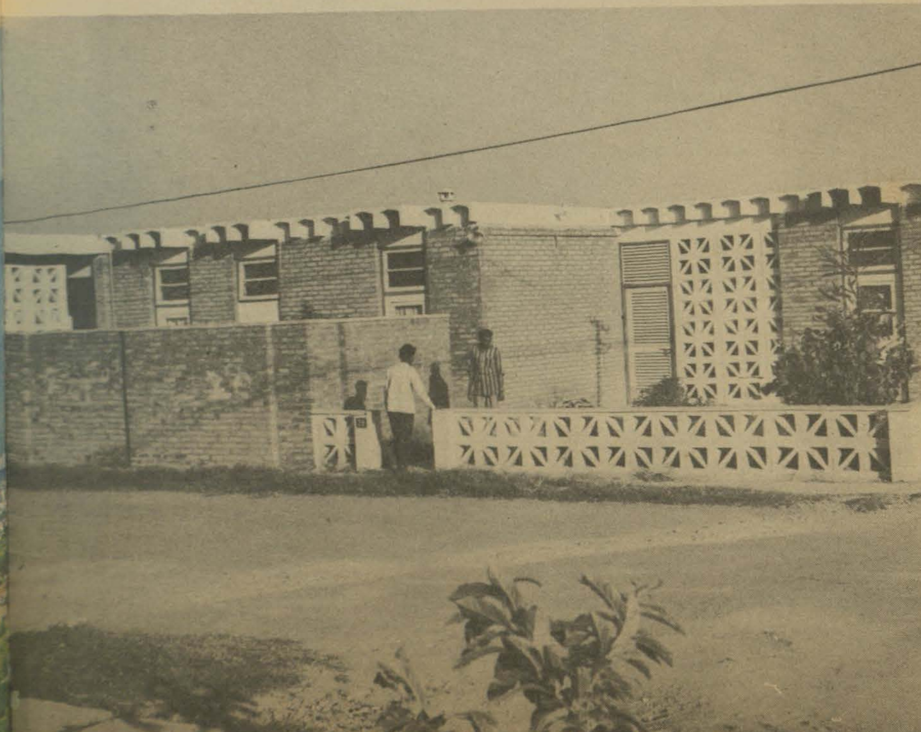
- rest and recreation areas and community parks to be developed;
- speculative holding of urban land to be controlled by legislation;
- distribution of responsibility for housing as between local bodies, provincial administrations and Central Government to be clearly laid down and the discipline of long-term plans enforced;
- intensive research to be carried out to discover utilization of local new and old materials in new ways;
- research to be carried out in environmental sanitation;
- housing surveys to be carried out for collection of data and constant evaluation of needs and conditions.

The current Plan, which provides for an expenditure of Rs. 2,477 million on housing and physical planning in the public sector, aims at meeting the most essential needs, according to a system of priorities, and at laying guidelines for future urban and rural development. Co-operative housing and other forms of self-help and mutual aid arrangements are being encouraged and expanded to middle and low-income groups, through grants of land at low cost and technical assistance and advice. Mass production of cheap, standardized dwelling units through such societies is also being considered.

ISLAMABAD

The crowning achievement in this sphere is the new capital of Pakistan, Islamabad. Selected by a commission specially set up for this purpose, the

Housing for government servants in Islamabad.



site is the table-land of the Potwar plateau, near Rawalpindi. Spread over an area of 351 square miles, it is an expanse of natural terraces and meadows rising 1,700 to 2,000 feet above sea level. In September 1960, the Capital Development Authority was created to build the new city.

The city is divided into various functional zones which are described in the following paragraphs:

Administrative Sector: The Administrative Sector located to the north-east and situated on the main axis of the city, will contain the principal public buildings such as the President's House, Secretariat blocks, Assembly buildings, Supreme Court, and a group of cultural buildings. Eight massive, multi-storeyed Secretariat blocks have been completed in this sector. Several divisions of the Central ministries have already moved into their permanent offices there.

Diplomatic Enclave: A special enclave of 500 acres has been provided for the location of the chanceries and residences of foreign diplomatic missions. It is situated in a pleasant setting close to the picturesque lake Rawal. With an average elevation of 1,800 feet above sea level, its slopes lend themselves to the construction of imposing buildings at various levels. A small stream meanders through the area. Some 32 countries have already purchased plots of land in this area.

Residential Sectors: Residential sectors have been planned in rows, placed on both sides of the main civic, commercial and business centre in the heart of the town. The area of each residential sector is 1.25 square miles, and the plots vary in size from 135 square yards to 3,500 square yards. Each sector is a self-sufficient township equipped with civic facilities and services, such as schools, mosques, markets, dispensaries, playgrounds for children and parks. The main community centre of the sector will have offices, a local mosque, a sectoral post office, hospital, police station, cinema house, club and large departmental stores and shops. The emphasis has been on providing facilities and services close to where people live.

National Park: A vast valley is earmarked for the national park and will have institutions of national importance, such as the Atomic Research Institute, the National Health Centre, and a spacious sports centre, including an Olympic Village. It will also have exhibition grounds, zoological and botanical gardens.

The second phase of the construction is coming to a close. About 96 per cent of the work on the Secretariat and over 80 per cent of the work on houses for the staff has been completed. The construction of roads, drainage and water supply systems and landscaping is well ahead of schedule. In the private sector, more than 5,000 plots of land have been sold to foreign missions and the general public. Total expenditure up to 1966-67 incurred on Capital building was Rs. 527.3 million.

Second Capital: In 1959, it was decided to have a Second Capital in East Pakistan. With that end in view, it was also provided in the Constitution that there would be a Second Capital at Dacca with the principal seat

of the National Assembly also situated there.

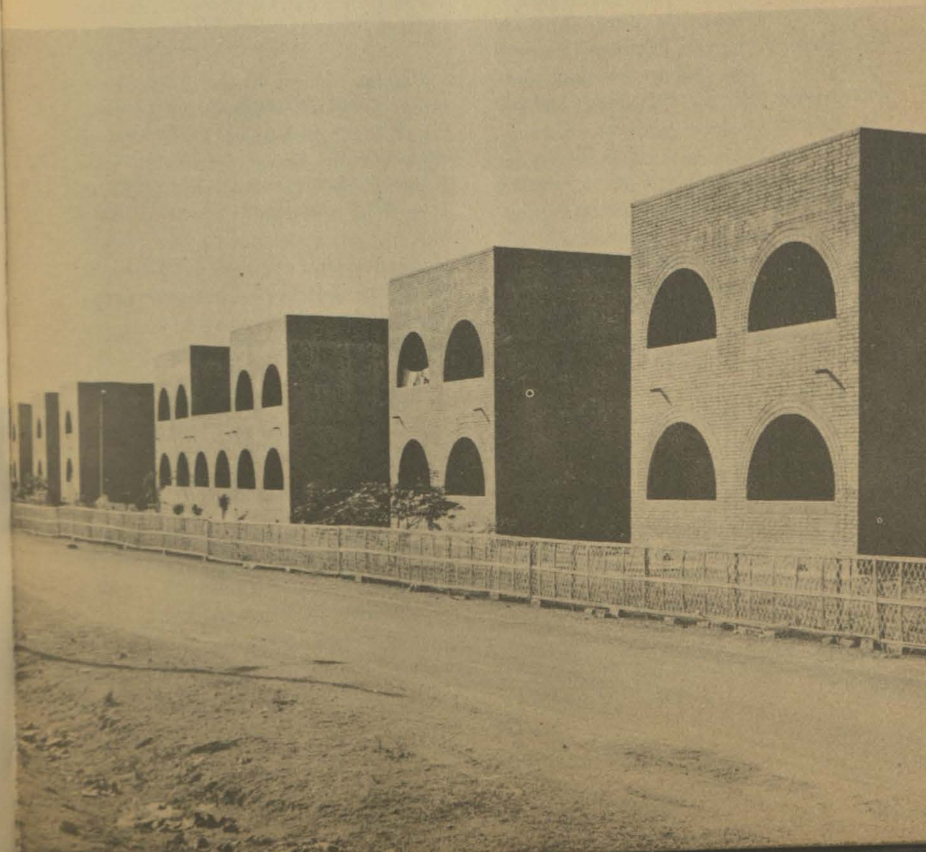
The Tejgaon Farm Area in Dacca was found most suitable in consideration of climatic conditions, seismic safety, topography, means of communication and other factors.

Master Plan: The Master Plan visualizes a clearly defined reservation within the city of Dacca encompassing the Government buildings and subsidiary structures in a setting of gardens, waterways and fountains, inter-connected with roads and walks. At one end of the north-south axis is the 'Citadel of the Assembly' and on the other end, the 'Citadel of Instituttions', which are separated by an area of land intended for a public park. Other land is to be used for houses, gardens and social needs of families. A portion of the land will be developed for higher residential buildings, including residences and offices for consulates.

An allocation of Rs. 60 million was made during the Second Five-Year Plan for the Second Capital projects, and another allocation of Rs. 120 million exists in the Third Plan.

A committee of officials has been constituted to ensure speedy execution

A view of housing in Ayub Nagar.



of the master plan and has been given financial and other powers. Work is proceeding on the MNA hostel, National Assembly building and community centre.

HOUSING PROGRAMME

The Third Plan has allocated 12.7 per cent of its total expenditure to physical planning and housing, which exceeds the Second Plan allocation by 70 per cent. It aims at building 292,500 residential houses, 50 per cent of these being meant for lower income groups, 40 per cent for the middle and 10 per cent for the upper.

The urban population is estimated to have risen by three quarters during the sixties alone and, apart from the backlog, 120,000 new dwelling units are required every year. Between 1947 and 1965 some 1.66 million dwelling units were constructed and about 50,000 plots developed.

The current programme of housing in the public sector consists of:

— slum clearance and low income housing, and housing for industrial workers;
— rehabilitation of displaced persons, that is, migrants and evictees from India;
— housing for public servants;
— construction of the new Federal Capital at Islamabad and the Second Capital at Dacca.

Slum clearance work in Karachi, Dacca and Lahore, Narayanganj, Khulna and Lyallpur is essentially undertaken by local authorities. They are now building increasing numbers of houses, especially small dwellings for low-income groups who cannot afford to build houses of their own. These dwellings are sold to occupants on easy instalments payable over a period of 20 years. These facilities are offered on a no-profit-no-loss basis. Plots are also developed and sold to persons intending to build their own houses.

Immigrants: The work of rehabilitating displaced persons was done in three distinct stages, namely, (i) rehabilitation on temporary basis through allotment of evacuee property; (ii) registration of claims in respect of urban and rural properties abandoned in India; and (iii) permanent settlement by satisfaction of claims through transfer of evacuee property, or cash compensation.

Beacuse of the constant inflow of refugees, special efforts had to be made for their rehabilitation. The exodus of refugees from Assam, Tripura and West Bengal into East Pakistan started in June 1962, when India started evicting Muslims from the border belt. It was accelerated after the riots in Calcutta in 1964. The number of refugees registered up to September 6, 1965, in East Pakistan was 342,375.

The Central Government has given the highest priority to the rehabilitation of refugees coming both as a result of evictions from Assam and Tripura and communal riots of West Bengal in India. The Muslim evictees from Assam and Tripura States are Indian nationals and under the law are subject to repatriation back to India; but they have been accepted by Pakistan on humanitarian grounds, despite the

fact that this problem poses serious difficulties.

Jammu and Kashmir: As a result of the disturbances in the Jammu and Kashmir State, after Independence, more than half a million Muslims were forced to seek shelter in West Pakistan. A number of camps were opened and, for several years, food and clothing was provided for these refugees by the Government. They have since been rehabilitated in various parts of Pakistan. Up to the end of 1967, about 274,000 of them, making up over 54,500 families, were allotted 480,988 acres of evacuee agricultural land. Nearly 20,000 families were paid cash grants to rehabilitate them in their various professions and occupations. Others have been given houses, shops and industrial concerns.

The Pakistan Refugee Finance Corporation has sanctioned loans to the extent of Rs. 3,313,700 to 2,861 Jammu and Kashmir refugees. The loan is to be recovered in 43 easy instalments.

Two hundred residential and 72 commercial plots in Satellite Town, Rawalpindi, and 43 residential plots and four commercial plots in Satellite Town, Gujranwala, have been reserved and allotted to Jammu and Kashmir refugees. Also, colonies of 500 quarters at Dhingranwali (Gujranwala), 1,200 quarters at Ugoke (Sialkot), 200 quarters at Rathian (Jhelum), and 30 shops and 8 quarters at Dina (Jhelum) will be constructed at a cost of Rs. 10,768,900. Another 1,700 families will later be rehabilitated at a cost of Rs. 10 million.

Kashmiri refugees uprooted by enemy action during the war of September 1965 were treated in the same way as other refugees, and the Government of West Pakistan took steps for their resettlement. Refugees settled in Azad Kashmir are being looked after and cared for by the Azad Kashmir Government. Two hundred new dwellings, have been built for them in Jhelum, and a total of 699 quarters in Gujranwala and Sialkot. The town of Mirpur has been constructed at a cost of Rs. 34 million.

Claims of Immigrants: The settlement of immigrants' claims has been done by transfer of property in the compensation pool and by payment of cash compensation to those whose claims could not be adjusted by such transfer. More than 1.5 million claims were registered according to which Rs. 23,000 million worth of properties were claimed by displaced persons. Since the question of the settlement of claims and payment of compensation was dependent on the availability of evacuee property and as the assets abandoned in Pakistan by non-Muslims proved insufficient, it was considered necessary to cut down the value of the claims to the lowest level in order to reduce pressure on the compensation pool.

Out of 569,000 units of urban properties, comprising houses, shops, building sites and industrial concerns, 504,000 units were disposed of by transfer, sale, auction or otherwise. Permanent transfer deeds in respect of 288,000 units have also been issued.

Action is in progress for payment of compensation in cash. Over Rs. 276 million have so far been paid to claimants in cash, which included

interim or full compensation to widows, orphans, invalids and old persons.

Against 1.4 million land claims from agreed and non-agreed areas, all except 5,200 claims have already been settled. Sufficient land is available for settlement of the remaining claims.

East Pakistan: The Physical Planning and Housing sector in East Pakistan incurred a total expenditure of Rs. 12.66 million on the execution of 58 schemes —42 on-going and 16 new — for building Government servants' residential estates and offices. Nine town planning schemes, including the Dacca railway diversion scheme, have been completed.

By the end of the Second Plan period, 22,049 nucleus houses and 1,182 flats had been constructed and 8,873 residential plots developed for general and displaced persons' housing in 15 towns, and 148 acres of land were developed for commercial purposes.

During 1960-65, three building trade schools were constructed in East Pakistan. A department of architecture was established at the Technical University, Dacca, and the Building Research Institute was constructed.

Under the Rural Water Supply Scheme, the target of providing one hand pump for every 400 persons in rural areas of the province was achieved by the middle of the Second Plan per iod. They are now aiming at doubling the number of tube-wells. During the Second Plan period, as many as 83,000 new tube-wells were sunk and 17,000 worn out tube-wells were re-sunk. Since then 593 shallow wells have been drilled in the rural areas of the province.

The Dacca Improvement Trust (DIT) undertook development of 4,000 acres of land and provided 3,100 residential, 335 commercial and 300 industrial plots during the Second Plan period. The trust undertook construction of 228 flats for outright sale and, since then, DIT has developed about 200 acres of land for residential and commercial purposes and has executed a number of road improvement schemes within the city of Dacca.

The Chittagong Development Authority completed development of 186 acres of land for residential purposes and seven acres of land for commercial purposes in 1960-65. The authority also constructed markets, measuring 54,900 square feet, and roads.

West Pakistan: In this province, basic development projects were taken up by the town planning wing of the Communications and Works Department in 1962.

The Master Plan projects launched in 1960-61 for Lahore, Lyallpur, Peshawar and Hyderabad have been completed. The provincial Government has established a faculty for post-graduates in town planning at the University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore. Legislation to regulate and guide the scientific growth of urban centres without undue litigation is expected shortly. Efforts are also being made to revise the existing bye-laws of the municipalities.

In Karachi, the preparation of a master plan has been taken up at a



Newly built mosque at the Dacca University Campus.

A housing colony coming up at Ayub Nagar, near Dacca.





Dacca Hall, a hostel of Dacca University.

WAPDA House, Lahore.



total cost of Rs. 2.5 million. This means largely rehabilitating migrants from various parts of India. Provision of housing for this mass of human beings posed a gigantic task in West Pakistan in particular. Since many of the refugees literally flooded Karachi, rehabilitation work was given top top priority in this city. By 1958 a number of colonies, such as Lalukhet, Drigh Road, Malir Extension, Saudabad, Landhi and Aurangabad, were set up in and around Karachi. More than 440,000 families were settled in these houses but most of the colonies lacked basic amenities, such as parks, playgrounds and schools. The first major step in rehabilitating displaced persons was building up Korangi township where, by now, about 26,000 one-room quarters have been built on behalf of the Government by the Karachi Development Authority (KDA) under the Greater Karachi Resettlement Scheme. The KDA also built over 18,000 quarters in New Karachi. Both Korangi and New Karachi will ultimately cater to a population of half a million and 350,000, respectively. In all, the Government has spent about Rs. 250 million on the execution of the Greater Karachi Resettlement Programme since 1959.

In other parts of West Pakistan, 42 satellite townships accommodating 80,000 families were built.

Next, in order of priority, are 200 schemes for various parts of the province to supply drinking-water to rural areas where rural health centres are being established. These schemes comprise sinking deep tube-wells, constructing reservoirs, and laying down pipelines in streets from which individual consumers can obtain water connections. Community taps or stand posts are also provided for people who cannot pay for water. More than 123 such schemes have been completed.

For urban schemes of water supply and sewerage and drainage, the Department of Public Health Engineering was established in August 1961. Since its creation, 36 schemes were taken up in various parts of the province, 21 of which were completed and the remaining are at various stages of development.

In Karachi, the first phase of the Greater Karachi Water Supply, Sewerage and Sewage Disposal Project was taken up in 1954-55. The cost of this project is now estimated at Rs. 324.2 million. Two of its integrated parts have been entirely completed and the third part is nearly complete.

In West Pakistan, all schemes undertaken by improvement trusts for land development so far are self-financed. The KDA has been executing schemes in various parts of Karachi on a no-profit basis. The Lahore Improvement Trust undertook 20 schemes of town planning and developed 5,000 residential plots in 1960-65.

The Lahore Improvement Trust has sponsored several townships and has provided developed plots in different parts of the city. It now proposes to construct 15,000 houses, of which 2,000 will be one-room, 11,000 two-room and 2,000 three-room, at a cost of Rs. 134.2 million.

Co-operatives: It is realized that if there

is greater incentive for the private sector, its investment in housing will rise.

There are about 400 co-operative housing societies in the urban areas of the country. Developed lands are allotted to them by the local improvement trusts or development authorities at cost price, which they then lease out to their members for house building. The Government is encouraging co-operative societies as a means of promoting construction in the private sector.

Public Buildings: The basic public buildings necessary for housing the Governments were just not there for the newly-born State of Pakistan in 1947. Their creation was a gigantic task and it was undertaken with the courage and fortitude of the citizens of a new and independent country.

The list of public buildings built by public works departments is vast. It includes schools, colleges, museums, gardens, offices, radio stations, micro-wave stations, post offices, meteorological headquarters, airports, hospitals, laboratories, presses, hostels, academies, staff quarters, halls and, of course, miles and miles of roads. The total cost of the work executed by them runs into hundreds of millions of rupees.

Financing: There are only two agencies providing house building credits to individuals and private housing societies. One is the House Building Finance Corporation (HBFC), an autonomous body formed under the statute, and the other a private body which has recently been established in Karachi.

HBFC: The House Building Finance Corporation provides long-term loans at 6.5 per cent interest, payable in monthly instalments over a period of 15 years. Through its offices all over the country, credit facilities for house building are made available to the people of 165 towns and cities of Pakistan — 72 in the East and 93 in the West.

The Corporation has an authorized share capital of Rs. 50 million fully subscribed and paid up by the Government. Up to June 1965, it received Rs. 60 million by way of loans from the Government and also raised a further capital of Rs. 130 million by issuing debentures.

With the aid of HBFC loans, over 17,000 houses have been built by individual borrowers and over 7,000 houses and flats by co-operative societies. The Corporation is guided by commercial considerations, but endeavours to grant a larger number of small loans for the construction of small houses.

Social Welfare

POLICY-MAKING in Pakistan aims at the creation of a welfare state. For the present, new social problems that spring from rapid change, brought about by planned economic development, are being added to those centuries old. The planning strategy, therefore, includes an organized effort to minimize social tensions and to alleviate some of the hardships of a society in rapid transition.

The country's economy is still far from the stage where the state can accept full responsibility for meeting all the significant social needs for prevention or alleviation of disability, poverty or hardship. Reliance has inevitably to be placed on voluntary effort for much necessary social work. In this respect, the religious faith of the majority of the population, Islam, stands the country's planners in good stead. Welfare activity is implicit in the observances that are obligatory on Muslims. Specifically, the institution of the mosque became the centre for community welfare at a very early stage in its history. Together with charity and *zakat*, it provided an organizational framework, mobilizing resources for the community to do what it could to help its less fortunate members. The whole country has, consequently, a network of voluntary welfare associations engaged in the primary service of relieving human distress.

In recent years, voluntary social welfare agencies have sprung up all over Pakistan on a secular basis also. The planning agencies have recognized the provision of social welfare services as an important objective of social policy as well as of economic development, although financial allocations to them have been limited by the severe paucity of resources, since every available

penny is being devoted to modernizing the national economic infrastructure.

The role of the state in social welfare has perforce been limited to co-ordination, guidance, provision of experts for training honorary social workers (and sometimes paid ones) and organizing pilot projects wherever expert knowledge or special skills are called for. As the processes of economic development have gathered speed, allocations for the provision of social welfare services by the state have increased, although they are still a very small proportion of the total outlay.

The first Five-Year Plan allocated Rs. 33 million for social welfare, which included organization and administration of welfare activities at the public and private levels, training, research, urban community development, grants-in-aid to voluntary agencies, medical social work, child and youth welfare, recreational services for children and youth, prevention of delinquency and probation, rehabilitation and training of the socially and physically handicapped. But no more than 25 per cent of the allocation could actually be spent and most of the activities remained concentrated at the centre.

The Second Plan was able to make a larger allocation. It provided Rs. 85 million for the purposes of social welfare, in which allocations to services for children, youth, families and delinquents were added to the First Plan programme. Another sum of Rs. 35 million was allocated for the same purpose to Basic Democracies, thus taking the programme to rural areas. The performance was much better during this Plan, amounting to well over 88 per cent; and a firm foundation was laid for future development in this field. The Third Plan originally allocated Rs. 125 million for the purpose, later revised to Rs. 90 million.

Organization: Under the Constitution, social welfare is a provincial subject; all executive functions and projects were, in 1962, transferred to the two provincial governments. The Central Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare co-ordinates social welfare activity at the national level and deals with matters of international importance. The central set-up includes professional elements for countrywide co-ordination, collation, legislation, international co-operation and administering grants-in-aid to private agencies and universities.

The Central Ministry is advised by the National Council of Social Welfare which assesses the needs and activities of voluntary organizations and offers them encouragement, guidance and financial and technical assistance.

Provinces: At the provincial level, Directorates of Social Welfare were set up, and the secretariat and staff of a number of bodies were to be merged in these. In East Pakistan, this has been accomplished, and the Directorate of Social Welfare is now the sole agency in charge. In West Pakistan, the Directorate of Social Welfare and the Provincial Council of Social Welfare continue to work separately. Due co-ordination is, however, achieved at the top administrative and ministerial levels. Additionally, the subjects of medical social work and services for the physically handicapped and for delinquents are dealt with in departments

of health, education and home, respectively.

Basic Democracies: The Third Plan has entrusted social welfare work to Basic Democracies at the sub-divisional level in East Pakistan (58 units) and at the district level in West Pakistan (51 units). These local bodies initiate, organize, control and supervise all types of social work in their areas, and they are being staffed with trained social welfare workers.

Objectives: The state policy, as defined by the Planning Commission, has the following objectives:

(i) the intensification of development work by involving the maximum number of people in development tasks;
(ii) consolidation and expansion of existing preventive, curative and rehabilitative social services at all levels;
(iii) initiation of new programmes to tackle the needs and problems hitherto neglected;
(iv) mobilization of funds through institutions like *zakat, auqaf, sadaquat, khairat* for organizing community chests and charity funds.

Training and Research: At graduate level, instruction in social welfare is being provided at 25 colleges. At the post-graduate level, instruction in this subject is available at the universities of Panjab, Karachi, Dacca and Rajshahi. Hyderabad and Peshawar universities are shortly to introduce such courses. The training of boy scouts and girl guides in schools is being given a social work orientation. In Dacca's College of Social Welfare, an honours course was introduced during 1967-68.

In collaboration with UNICEF, Child Welfare Training Centres have been established at Dacca and Lahore. These provide in-service training to personnel in child-care institutions and other agencies. The centres have been integrated with a scheme for Social Welfare In-Service Training Centres and now provide in-service training programmes for most workers of the Directorates of Social Welfare and of voluntary child welfare agencies.

Research: The Third Plan has strongly recommended research into various aspects of social welfare, so that planning processes could be made more realistic and education and training programmes more fruitful. A number of research projects are being organized, covering welfare of the physically, mentally or socially handicapped and for orphans, migrants, prostitutes and delinquents. The universities of Dacca and Lahore are prominent in the research field, and the. Planning Commission financed some basic research studies at these universities.

Voluntary Work: The number of registered private agencies engaged in social welfare on December 1, 1967, was 2,087 in East Pakistan and 756 in West Pakistan. Another 1,244 agencies working in West Pakistan are being registered. Some of these are of nationwide significance, as, for instance, the All-Pakistan Women's Association, the Pakistan Council for Child Welfare, the Pakistan Conference of Social Work, the National Federation for Welfare of the Blind, the Pakistan T.B. Welfare Association, the Pakistan Leprosy Association and the Social Service Co-ordination Council (which co-ordinates 60 social welfare agencies of Karachi).

Most of the voluntary agencies are engaged in more than one activity. The functions range all the way from the provision of relief for natural calamities to assistance for the handicapped. They have established schools, libraries, maternity homes, family planning clinics and recreation centres.

There are fields in which private effort is severely limited. These usually require the services of specialists, and cost more money than private agencies can ordinarily mobilize. In such cases, the Government has to step in, both with financial aid and with the provision of trained personnel.

Out of a total of 4,087 voluntary agencies, 1,049 received grants-in-aid in 1967-68, while the rest depended upon their own resources. Professional assistance is, however, provided to all the agencies by the Provincial Directorates and Councils of Social Welfare.

State Assistance: By and large, most of the primary welfare work is financed by voluntary contributions, but in all cases where the scale of operations is large and the nature of services rendered requires trained personnel, state aid is vital. Assistance from the state is intended to be a catalytic agent, and the p inciple followed is that unless a given proportion of voluntary subscription is forthcoming, no state assistance is given.

State expenditure on social welfare has steadily risen. In 1955-56, a sum of Rs. 23,600 was allocated; in 1967-68, the allocation climbed to Rs. 13.5 million, while in 1968-69 it is likely to range between Rs. 25 million and Rs. 29 million. Precise figures for the amount collected and spent by private agencies are not available, but it is believed to be many times the figure provided by the Government.

The main thrust of official policy is to strengthen training facilities, and the Government regularly provides technical assistance to private agencies in the shape of trained personnel. Social Welfare Councils arrange short-term training courses and publish literature and news-letters. All over Pakistan, field officers have been appointed (60 in East Pakistan and 8 in West Pakistan) to guide and supervise the work of voluntary agencies.

In terms of the Voluntary Social Welfare Agencies (Registration and Control) Ordinance of 1961, all private agencies are required to register before they can begin working. The registering authorities render advice on maintaining record and accounts.

Social Services: The number of services being provided is large and varied. Some of them deal with such old problems as beggary, ignorance, sudden destitution, loss of parents or husband. Others have come up with the rapid change in ways of living: the trek from the villages to the cities; the break up of large families; social strains generated by rapid technological and economic change consequent upon industralization.

The problem of resources is not as formidable as it looks, though paucity of funds and of skilled manpower is acute enough. To a large extent, the immediate task is the mobilization of resources from private individuals, on the one hand, and the provision of

technical advice, guidance and initiative from the state, on the other.

Urban Services: This is a multipurpose programme. Trained social workers seek to organize self-help in a community or project area. Schools, institutes, libraries, reading rooms, clinics, vocational training centres, and recreational clubs are organized, environmental hygiene and other community services are improved or reorganized. The task of social workers is mainly to motivate the people and to help them organize common facilities on a self-help basis.

Rural Social Services: Beginning early, the village extension services were merged, after 1959, into the Basic Democracies system and called the Rural Works Programme. A programme of social services in rural communities was specially devised under the social welfare sector. It envisaged eventually setting up 500 service units (200 in East Pakistan and 300 in West Pakistan). By the middle of the year 1967-68, a beginning had been made and 14 projects had been set up in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan the scheme was merged with the Rural Works Programme.

Medical Social Work: It is intended to make formal treatment more effective and to raise the spirit of the patients. At the last count, 25 medical social work projects were being executed, but the estimated needs of the country are 710 projects. A large number of private or voluntary agencies are helping in this field, notable among them being the Red Cross Society, the Saint John Ambulance Association, and the Patients, Relief and Welfare Societies.

Child Welfare: Baby Homes, Day Care Centres and multipurpose centres provide food, clothes, education and recreational facilities.

Four thousand service units are needed for the country, and the Government is organizing 34 pilot projects, while many private agencies are working in the field under their own arrangements. Co-ordination among these organizations is being provided by the Pakistan Council of Child Welfare. The Council organizes six Presidential awards for children up to the age of 16.

UNICEF is also rendering assistance, and has helped to organize two Children's Welfare Training Institutes at Dacca and Lahore.

The commonest and oldest form of social service for children is the organization of orphanages which shelter, feed and educate orphans. The number of orphanages, both private and state-run, is estimated at well over 500.

Youth Welfare: The country has a large number of youth organizations. These include boy scouts, girl guides, the Work Camp Association of Dacca, the Pakistan Youth Hostel Association at Lahore, and the National Youth Council at Karachi. The main emphasis of the youth organizations is on health, recreation and physical culture. In East Pakistan there is one Youth Welfare Centre at each district headquarters. Vocational training is also being given to young people at these centres.

The country's needs are estimated to be 750 service units, and the main reliance will be placed on voluntary initiative.

The state is providing 29 model units for East and West Pakistan.

Women's Welfare: The Government runs two training centres, one at Dacca and the other at Karachi.

With the help of UNICEF, mothers' clubs are being set up on a voluntary basis.

The provincial Governments also runs women's homes for destitute women where vocational training and training in the household arts are given.

Social Evils: Due to inherited inequalities and backward education, social evils still persist. In some cases, social customs have given rise to them, and a commission was appointed to consider the eradication of social evils. Its terms of reference were:

(a) to examine the origin, nature and extent of customs from which social evils derive;
(b) to examine the measures so far adopted by the Government to combat them and assess their efficacy;
(c) to examine the factors that make for the persistence of social evils;
(d) to suggest ways and means of (i) minimizing the effects of such customs as a short-term measure and (ii) completely eradicating them as a long-term objective.

Beggary: This is an ancient evil. Much attention has been paid to it, and until recently the course adopted was to declare beggary unlawful in as many areas as possible, on the one hand, and to set up vagrant homes for rehabilitation of beggars on the other. So far, four such homes, two in each zone of the country, have been set up, while 16 more are being established. The idea is that eventually each district authority and municipal committee should have such a home. Widespread preventive measures are undertaken through the community development programme to cut it at its roots.

A number of studies and surveys of this problem have been made. The more notable among them are the two pilot projects being conducted under UCD projects at Mymensingh and Chandpur. In these, area committees have been set up, under official auspices, in which representatives of the administration, local bodies, *imams* of mosques, educationists, lawyers, merchants and other leaders of opinion are represented. The main thrust of the policy is towards educating public opinion and providing facilities for the vocational training of beggars and indigent and disabled persons.

Juvenile Delinquency: An assessment of the need for coping with this, in the shape of juvenile courts, remand homes, training and rehabilitation centres, is approximately 315 service units (of 100 cases each). A beginning is being made with 18 units.

A number of schemes are being prepared to look after the physical, social and psychological requirements of offenders and released prisoners. Probation and after-care centres work in close co-operation with the jail, police and court authorities. The cases of selected offenders are referred by the courts to the probation officer (of these centres) for investigating the sociological and economic circum-

stances, so that such offenders may be granted probation. In such instances, probational supervision by a probation officer lasts from one to three years. The probation officers also assist in the rehabilitation of released prisoners who have nowhere to go.

The Handicapped: The assessment of the needs of the physically and mentally handicapped of all categories is at least 2,500 units (of 100 to 300 cases). For the present, there is a pilot programme for the training and rehabilitation of the handicapped. Forty model institutions are being set up in which co-operation from private individuals and organizations is forthcoming.

Perhaps the largest group is that of the blind — no less than 500,000 of them. Several institutions exist which house them and provide them with education, vocational training and employment opportunities. The Third Plan programme provides for 27 more institutions of this kind. Many private organizations are doing excellent work in this field in both zones of the country. Religious *maktabs* and mosques, especially in villages and small towns, provide education to the blind in religious subjects.

A dozen centres exist which provide vocational training to the deaf and dumb. Five more institutions are being established.

Three model institutions are being set up to cater for the needs of the mentally retarded. The Pakistan Institute of Mental Hygiene and the Pakistan Association of Mental Health are doing valuable work, and are conducting a survey of the incidence of mental diseases.

The East Pakistan Council for Child Welfare has set up a centre for the physiotherapic treatment of crippled children, and more than 35 patients attend this every day.

Workers' Security: A beginning towards social security was made in 1962, when the Employees Social Insurance Ordinance was promulgated. This was followed by the West Pakistan Employees Social Security Ordinance. The coverage of the West Pakistan scheme is so far limited to textile workers of Karachi, Hyderabad and Lyallpur towns. The coverage is to be extended gradually.

Under this scheme, a fund amounting to 6 per cent of the wage earned is set apart, of which 4 per cent is contributed by the employers and 2 per cent by the workers. The fund provides for cash and medical benefits in the event of sickness, maternity, disability or death. Gratuity, survivors' pensions and, disability pensions are also admissible.

The workers' rights are protected by a number of statutes and rules made under them to regulate compensation for employment injury, maternity benefit, etc.

Old-age Pension: State servants receive regular pensions which are normally admissible at the age of 55. If a public servant retires or dies after less than ten years' qualifying service he, or his family, is entitled to a gratuity at a determined rate, subject to a maximum of Rs. 12,500. Temporary employees of the State who complete ten years' service are entitled to a gratuity on retirement, or discharge, at a fixed rate, subject to a maximum of Rs. 25,000.

Government servants are also given the benefit of a Provident Fund. Similar benefits are also provided in many autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies, as well as in the larger private industrial and commercial organizations, usually on a contributory basis.

Relief Work: In the face of natural or man-made calamity, social service is an accepted duty of life. In case of such natural calamities as floods, cyclones or drought, cash grants are made for the purchase of seed, draught animals and house-building materials. In the case of coastal areas and islands in East Pakistan, community shelters have been constructed. In times of acute need, temporary relief camps, free or subsidized rationing, free distribution of clothes and medicines are instituted. The President has a standing relief fund, and so have the two provincial Governors. Moreover, voluntary associations also co-operate.

Refugees are still coming in from India, especially into East Pakistan, and relief and assistance must be rendered to them.

Armed Services: The armed services have an elaborate welfare system for enlisted men and retired defence personnel.

Apart from specific welfare departments/agencies in the three main services — Army, Air Force and Navy — there is the Post-War Reconstruction Fund, renamed the Fauji Foundation, which runs a number of projects for helping armed services personnel.

Educational Stipends: The children of army personnel who died in the 1965 War (or other dependents, in the case of bachelors) are being given stipends. The West Pakistan Government has reserved three seats in each medical college for the children of personnel of the Armed Forces, and educational stipends for the children of Armed Forces personnel are granted from the Post-War Services Rehabilitation Fund.

General Welfare: Welfare of serving personnel, ex-servicemen and their dependents involves a large number of petitions about lands/houses, complaints of various kinds, requests for monetary help and Armed Services have usually to provide good offices or other forms of help. In cases of extreme distress, cash grants are also given. Sewing machines are given to widows of deceased soldiers to enable them to become self-supporting. In the case of natural calamities, affected members of the Armed Forces are given relief from Armed Forces' funds as well as from the Post-War Services Reconstruction Fund.

Rehabilitation liaison officers function on an Inter-Services basis in all important centres of the country. They afford all possible assistance to retired military personnel in securing employment. Retired military personnel are entitled to the allotment of agricultural land under various schemes.

Allotment of Lands: In most barrage areas improved land is reserved for resettling serving and ex-service personnel of the Armed Forces. The selection of suitable allottees is made by the service concerned. The Army has a separate agency for the purpose, whose functions include guidance and the provision of material help in starting work on the land.

Vocational Training: Retired personnel and their sons are eligible for vocational training in the various technical training centres, as also for stipends from the Post-War Service Reconstruction Fund. Twenty-five per cent of the places in technical training centres are reserved for retired military men. Two more centres, one in each zone, are being set up exclusively for ex-servicemen.

Benevolent Fund: Army Officers' Benevolent Fund aims at providing relief or assistance to families of deceased, invalided or incapacitated subscribers. A similar fund exists for junior commissioned officers and other ranks.

TB Patients: A scheme of occupational therapy has been introduced in military hospitals to rehabilitate soldiers suffering from TB. Patients undergoing treatment are given some vocational training under this scheme, so that they can, upon being invalided from the service, become self-supporting members of the community. On discharge from the hospital, they are helped to start some useful occupation.

Government Servants: Both Central and provincial Governments have departments or arrangements caring for the welfare of Government servants, particularly in the lower paid categories. The Central Government's Staff Welfare Organization is devoted solely to this purpose.

Welfare activities for Government employees range from scholarships for their children, multipurpose centres for children and ladies' needle-craft training centres to financial grants for those in need. The most conspicuously successful example is the establishment of co-operative stores for the supply of consumer goods at cheaper rates.

Archaeology

GENERALLY speaking, in the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent, archaeology, like historiography, began with the advent of Islam. So far as is known, Muslim rulers, like Feroze Shah Tughlaq, were the earliest to take an interest in the preservation of ancient monuments. In fact, the archaeological tradition among Muslims goes back to the Ummayed and Abbasid periods. Abd-ul-Aziz bin Marwan, brother of the Ummayed Khalifa, Abd-ul-Malik, was probably the first to make an attempt to explore the mysteries of the Pyramids. Later, the Khalifa Al-Mamun followed in his footsteps.

So far as the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent is concerned, the foundation of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, by Sir William Jones in 1784, marks the beginning of modern antiquarian interest in this part of the world. To start with, however, the activities of the Society were largely confined to numismatics and linquisitc researches by Prinsep and others. In 1860, the Archaeological Survey of Northern India was organized for proper and systematic research, with Sir Alexander Cunningham of the Royal Engineers as the first Director of Archaeology. In 1871, he was appointed the Director-General of the Survey. His jurisdiction, however, was confined to northern India till 1874, when it was extended to southern India. Dr. James Burgess, in charge of Madras and Bombay Presidencies, worked under General Cunningham. With unflagging enthusiasm and energy, Cunningham undertook long tours for 23 years in central and northern India and reproduced his experience in the form of 23 volumes of *Archaeological Survey of India Reports*, a pioneer attempt in this field of scholarship.

During Cunningham's tenure of office, Major A. H. Cole was appointed



Fasting Buddha — a fine piece of Gandhara sculpture known for its forceful realism (4th century A.D., Lahore Museum).



Pottery from Kot Diji, around 2,800 B.C. (National Museum, Karachi).

A Mohenjodaro (steatite) seal. (National Museum — Karachi).



Curator of Ancient Monuments in 1881. In 1884, Dr. James Burgess succeeded Cunningham as Director-General. He was instrumental in publishing the well-known journals, *Indian Antiquary* and *Epigraphia Indica*.

After the retirement of Dr. Burgess in 1889, the Archaeological Survey fell victim to the retrenchment policies of the Government. It was Lord Curzon, the Viceroy, who gave his personal attention to the affairs of the department and reorganized it on a stable and permanent footing under Mr. J. H. (Later Sir John) Marshall, a young British archaeologist. Sir John Marshall held charge of the department from 1902 to 1932, and he is the main architect of archaeological preservation and excavation in the Sub-continent. He was followed by Mr. Hargreaves, Rai Bahadur Daya Ram Sahni, Major Blakiston, Rao Bahadur K. N. Dikshit and Sir Mortimer Wheeler. It was the work of these distinguished officers to which Pakistan owes whatever monuments, sites, objects of art and other cultural material it inherited on Independence.

The main archaeological sites in Pakistan, in 1947, were Mohenjodaro and Harappa, the two capital cities of the Indus Valley Civilization; Taxila, the main site of Gandhara, and Paharpur in East Pakistan, with its Buddhist monastery, one of the biggest in Asia. Most of these sites were excavated by, or under the direction of Sir John Marshall, whose main contribution in the field of Proto-history is the discovery of the Indus Valley Civilization.

The first study of Stone Age remains in this country was made by de Terra in 1935 in the Soan Valley of Rawalpindi district. After that until Independence came, no further systematic attempt was made to discover palaeolithic cultures in Pakistan and correlate them to similar cultures outside the country. Again, while Sir Aural Stein and others carried out extensive exploratory surveys in Baluchistan for the pre-historic period, the Neolithic Age was somewhat ill-defined and remained almost unexplored.

The Indus Valley Civilization, brought to light by Sir John Marshall, represented only its mature phase in the Chalcolithic period, but very little was known about its earlier stages. The genesis and efflorescence of this world-famous civilization were completely unknown, and so was the cause of its destruction.

During the periods between the invasion of the White Huns, in the fifth century A.D., and the appearance of the Muslims, in the eighth century A.D., the political history of Pakistan's territories was shrouded in tradition and folklore.

About the early Islamic period there was a twofold problem. In the first place, there was a complete absence of archaeological material for comparative study to supplement written documents. Scholars working in the field, therefore, had no choice but to rely largely on written sources. Secondly, very little was known about the art and architecture of the early Muslims in the Sub-continent.

Similarly, archaeological problems in East Pakistan, too, were manifold. Constant changes of its great hydrographic system and difficult communications due to prolonged floods, dense

forests and marshy lands had defied all attempts at proper archaeological investigation.

After independence, these problems were tackled and explorations for Stone Age remains were undertaken by the Department of Archaeology in the Potwar region near Rawalpindi and at Rohri in the Sind area. Encouraging results included the discovery of new sites of Palaeolithic culture. For further explorations of prehistory, the Department has planned a comprehensive survey not only of Baluchistan but also of the Sind and Punjab areas, and has accordingly carried out some surveys with the collaboration of a number of foreign archaeological missions.

To explore the earlier phases of the Indus Valley culture, the Department made an earnest attempt in 1950 to reach the water-logged earlier levels of Mohenjodaro; but with the available machinery, the attempt did not succeed. New light has, however, been thrown on this Culture by the 1955 excavations at Kot Diji where, luckily, there is no problem of water-logging. The Kot Diji culture proved to be an early phase of the Indus Valley Civilization. It was indeed a landmark in the history of Pakistan's archaeology, as it opened a new vista for investigation.

Similarly, excavations at Mahasthangarh and Mainamati, in East Pakistan, helped the reconstruction of cultural, political and social history. The discovery of a number of inscribed copper-plates at Mainamati has helped to complete the genealogy of the celebrated Buddhist Chandra dynasty which ruled over the eastern region of East Pakistan during the tenth-eleventh centuries A.D. Excavations at Mainamati have added a new line of Buddhist rulers — the Devas of East Bengal — to the known royal dynasties of East Pakistan, in the seventh-eighth centuries A.D.

The pioneer excavations at Bhanbhore, and the classification of its early Islamic pottery and antiquities, have opened new possibilities for scholars, and it is for the first time that material has become available for comparative study. It has also brought to light a well-laid plan of a fortified city and a large number of early Islamic coins, pottery, inscriptions and other objects which help to reconstruct the social, political and economic history of the region.

Since Independence, the Department has made big advances in the exploration and preservation of Pakistan's cultural heritage by undertaking scientific excavations in both zones of Pakistan, restoring the standing monuments of historical importance to their original glory, and by reorganizing existing museums and establishing new ones.

A scheme for the establishment of a National Museum of Pakistan, in Islamabad, at a total cost of Rs. 11.1 million, has been approved by the National Economic Council. Another development scheme of the department includes the establishment of a new museum at Lalbagh Fort, Dacca, and another at Hyderabad; expansion of the existing museums at Chittagong, Mainamati and Mahasthangarh in East Pakistan, as well as at Karachi and Swat in West Pakistan. The total cost of Rs. 4 million is to be spent equally in both zones of the country.

Ethnological material has been acquired from tribes living in the



Terracotta lion, 10th century (Mainamati Site Museum

[A] terracotta plaque, 8th Century (Mainamati Site Museum).



Literature

Pakistan, with its two geographical zones 1,000 miles apart, has two national languages — Urdu and Bengali. Bengali is mostly spoken in East Pakistan, where it is the mother tongue of the population, while Urdu is the *lingua franca*, the means of communication between people from different regions with diverse mother tongues. It is at the same time the mother tongue of millions of people who migrated to both zones of Pakistan from different parts of what is now Bharat.

URDU

Urdu evolved over a period of centuries as a by-product of cultural contacts between the local population in the northern regions of the Sub-continent and the Muslims — Arabs, Iranians, Turks and others — who came in successive waves as invaders, traders or missionaries. The base of the language remains indigenous, from a stock of Indo-Aryan *prakrits* or dialects that prevailed, according to the dominant view of scholars, north of Delhi in what is now Haryana Prant and parts of the Gangetic plain. Urdu developed through popular contact. Persian remained the court and business language till the end of the Mughal Empire. In its earlier form, Urdu is indistinguishable from Hindi *Khari Boli.* The outside influence was in the form of vocabulary and the script in which Urdu came to be written — a modified version of *nastalique* Persian. With a singular capacity for assimilation it has absorbed thousands of words from Arabic, Persian, Turkish and, later, from English and Portuguese, to mention only the main sources. The name 'Urdu' came into vogue in the last century; the language has also been known as Hindu, Hindvi, Hindustani and Rekhta in different periods of its

history. Urdu, a word of Turkish origin, means a camp. From *Zabane Urdu,* the language of the camp, where intermingling of peoples and languages occurred, it simply came to be known as Urdu.

Poetry has existed in Urdu for centuries. We have masters of verse in the eighteenth century, the period of the celebrated Meer and Sauda, and in the seventeenth and earlier centuries there were Wali and his predecessors in the Deccan and elsewhere. There was, however, not much of prose before the nineteenth century, except a few religious treatises. Some books were commissioned by the Fort William College of Calcutta, under the direction of Dr. John Gilchrist, to teach Urdu to civil servants newly arrived from Britain. These books included *Bagho Bahar, Araishe Mehfil* and *Tota Kahani,* which constitute the foundation of modern functional Urdu prose. Almost all these books, however, were story books. It was in the middle of the nineteenth century that Urdu prose acquired a scientific and literary bias. The credit goes to the Delhi College, where the syllabi were modern and western oriented and the medium of education was Urdu, and to the great Syed Ahmad Khan and his associates in the Aligarh reform movement. Another factor was Urdu journalism, which made its *debut* during the same period. The latter part of the nineteenth century produced the stalwarts of Urdu prose and journalism and at the same time saw the birth of modern Urdu poetry. There was a conscious effort made by the Anjumane Punjab of Lahore, in the early seventies, under the leadership of Colonel Holroyd with Altaf Husain Hali and Mohammad Husain Azad as the main pillars of the Anjuman. It heralded the new era of Urdu verse. The traditional poetry, however, held the field till Iqbal came to dominate the scene in the twentieth century. Ghalib (1796-1869), one of the greatest of Urdu poets, flourished in the first half of the nineteenth century. In prose, Nazir Ahmad, Mohammad Husain Azad, Hali and Shibli, besides Syed Ahmad Khan himself, produced their masterpieces in the latter part of the nineteenth century.

Some of Iqbal's contemporaries were considerable poets but none approached him in eminence. Iqbal (1877-1938) was more than a poet — a sage, a philosopher, a beacon of light for his people. None of those who preceded or followed him can be compared to him in richness of thought or form. Iqbal is too great indeed to be mentioned as just a historical link. He was a singular phenomenon and the wealth of writings he left is in a class by itself.

Another poet of note, who was in the forefront before the First World War, was the great satirist, Akbar Allahabadi. Topical poetry, as distinct from the lyrical, took firm root in his hands.

The winds of western influence blew more strongly after the First World War and the struggle for national independence and emancipation was intensified. The twenties were the days of agitation and rebellion that produced poets like Hasrat Mohani and Josh Malihabadi on the one hand, and pure romantics of the Walter Pater school, such as Niaz Fatehpuri and Sajjad Hyder Yaldram, on the other. The melodious Hafeez Jallundhri is the

product of the same decade, although he is uninfluenced by either of these currents.

The thirties, however, changed the complexion of poetry and prose radically. The wave of new thinking that culminated in what is called the Progressive Writers' Movement was occasioned by several factors, political and economic. In the international field Fascism and Nazism as well as resistance to them assumed prominence. The Depression had accentuated polarization in the economic field. On the national scene, complete independence had been adopted as the goal by political organizations. The general unrest of life influenced literature, and realism, particularly social realism, was reflected in all branches of creative literature and criticism. The rise of Germany and Soviet Russia, the defeat of the Republicans in Spain, and dread of an approaching global war had a profound effect on this current of thought. All these factors contributed to the development and popularity of what came to be known as progressive writing. There was another current influenced by the writings of Freud, running parallel to the progressive movement, which caused confusion in some minds who took both for one. The divergence came to be generally noticed during the Second World War and the period that followed. The Freudians were little concerned with what was happening outside the mind, while the progressives considered everything a reflection or an echo of happenings in the environs of an artist or a writer, as the progressive movement was essentially a creation of socialist doctrine.

The period from the early thirties to the end of the Second World War may be considered the golden period of modern Urdu literature. It produced several major poets and a number of fiction writers. Experiments were made in form and technique and no subject was considered flimsy, low-brow or sacrosanct. There were also iconoclasts and nihilists among the pioneers, as is always the case when a radical break from tradition is involved, but later it gave way to a more composed, though by no means less determined approach. The revolt became disciplined through experience.

Independence and After: In 1947 Pakistan came into being, and the partition affected everything, not merely land and material assets. Scores of writers moved from one side of the border to the other. There was a great deal of confusion, and assumptions needed re-thinking. The confusion took a considerable time to clear. The most immediate theme that dominated Urdu writing after the establishment of Pakistan was the holocaust that came in its wake. It was a gruesome episode, unprecedented in its dimensions. It motivated a mass of literature. There were neutral humanists like Ahmad Nadim Qasmi, and there were those who did not mind taking sides while sticking to facts. *Ya Khuda*, a novelette by Qudratullah Shahab, is perhaps the most outstanding piece of writing on the subject. Saadat Hasan Manto had a rather cynical approach, but wrote some remarkable pieces like *Khole Do* and *Toba Tek Singh*. Khadija Mastoor and Hajira Masroor wept for uprooted humanity. A. Hameed was nostalgic and romantic about things left behind, and set a new style. Intizar

Husain portrayed the life of small towns of western U. P. in India and its transplantation in Pakistan. Ashfaq Ahmad rose as a vigorous writer. He was less sentimental, and his famous story *Gadarya* stands out in contemporary literature. The late Shahid Ahmad Dehlavi, made a considerable contribution to the theme through his *Dilli ki Bipta* and stray essays later collected in *Ujra Dayar*.

Normality, however, returned as things began to settle down, and we find no single theme predominating Urdu writing after that. The Progressive Movement declined, not as an approach and trend of thought, but as an organized platform. No other organization replaced it on the national level until the Pakistan Writers' Guild was established in 1959. The Guild made a significant contribution to the development of literature by bringing about favourable conditions for the writer, e.g., the institution of substantial prizes for different branches of writing and the organization of symposia. It has even established a publishing house of its own.

An attempt may now be made to recapitulate the literary activity in different fields during the two decades of Pakistan's existence. The listings are only to illustrate the trends; they are not comprehensive or exhaustive in themselves.

Poetry: In the field of poetry, apart from the celebrated poet and author of the national anthem, Hafeez Jallundhri, the most important Urdu poets in Pakistan are Faiz Ahmad Faiz, Ahmad Nadim Qasmi and N.M. Rashid. There are three main groups of writers: the Progressives or the social realists, the ghazal writers and the rest. The Progressives, influenced by socialist currents of thought and led by Faiz Ahmad Faiz and Ahmad Nadim Qasmi, include Zaheer Kashmiri, Qateel Shifai, Zahoor Nazar, Aziz Hamid, Himayat Ali Shair, Habib Jalib, Farigh Bokhari, Jamil Malik, and Abdul Matin Arif. Among ghazal writers, Abdul Hamid Adam, Siraj-uddin Zafar, Hafiz Hoshiarpuri, Saif-uddin Saif, Shanul Huq Huqqi, Nasir Kazimi and Salim Ahmad are prominent. In the third category are poets writing on diverse themes. Side by side with already established writers like Mukhtar Siddiqi, Yusuf Zafar and Qayyum Nazar, there are Ada Jafri, Jamiluddin Aali, Ibne Insha, Mustafa Zaidi, Jafer Taher, Zia Jallundhri, Abdul Aziz Khalid, Ahmad Faraz, Shahzad Ahmad, Jilani Kamran, Munir Niazi, Saqi Farooqi, Salimur Rehman and Fahmida Riaz.

Experiment in form was no longer a preoccupation during this period, but there was much discussion of the poetic adequacy of the ghazal, the traditional form with alternate lines rhyming with each other. The ghazal appears to have come out victorious in this controversy; in fact, it has proved to be capable of conveying all shades of ideas however complex, daring, modern or revolutionary. It has attained a new sensibility unknown in previous periods of its proliferation.

In longer poems, Jafer Taher, Abdul Aziz Khalid and Ibne Insha achieved distinction. Those who adopted folk patterns and popular idiom, as distinct from classical and sophisticated diction, include Ibne Insha and Jamiluddin Aali.

Fiction: The novel was most popular during this period, but the same cannot be said of the short story. Besides the popular novels of Nasim Hijazi, Rais Ahmad Jafri and A.R. Khatoon, which have the biggest and most faithful readership, those that achieved fame and had distinctive qualities include Qurat-ul-Ain Hyder's *Ag ka Darya*, Shaukat Siddiqui's *Khuda ki Basti*, Khadija Mastoor's *Angan*, Mumtaz Mufti's *Ali Pur ka Eley*, Abdullah Husain's *Udas Naslen*, Razia Fasih Ahmad's *Abela Pa*, Nisar Aziz's *Nagri Phira Musafir*, Bano Qudsia's *Shehre Bemisal*, Jamila Hashmi's *Talashe Baharan*, Dr. Ahsan Farooqi's *Shame Awadh* and Altaf Fehmi's *Charaghe Mehfil*. There has been, besides, a spate of romantic and detective novels for the low brow.

In the field of the short story, those who had attained fame before the birth of Pakistan and continue to enrich Urdu literature include Saadat Hasan Manto, Ghulam Abbas, Mumtaz Mufti, Ahmad Nadim Qasimi, Hajira Masroor, Khadija Mastoor, Aziz Ahmad, Anwar Sajjad and Ibrahim Jalis. These writers were creative and contributed several dynamic pieces to Pakistan's Urdu literature. Those who flowered more particularly after the birth of Pakistan include: Qudratullah Shahab, Shaukat Siddiqi, Intizar Hussain, Qurat-ul-Aain Hyder, A. Hamid, Ashfaq Ahmad, Mumtaz Shirin, Altaf Fatima, Jamila Hashmi, Bano Qudsia, Nisar Aziz Butt, Ibnul Hasan, Ibne Said, Ghazi Salahuddin, Hamid Kashmiri and Rashida Rizvia.

Drama: The drama received a stimulus through the developing demand in the radio, the film and the recently introduced television. Those who seriously explored this medium include Mirza Adib, Intizar Husain, Asghar Butt, Bano Qudsia, Ashfaq Ahmad, Kamal Ahmad Rizvi, Anwar Enayatullah, Intisar Husain and Nasir Anwar.

Essay and Rapportage: In essay, humour and rapportage the contribution of Urdu writers has been significant. Besides the old guard — Shaukat Thanawi, Shafiq-ur-Rehman and Ibrahim Jalis — those who endowed modern Urdu writing with sparkling humour include Mushtaq Ahmad Yusufi, Col. Mohammad Khan, Mohammad Khalid Akhtar, Zamir Jafri, Amjad Husain, Masood Mufti and Ibne Insha. As for the reflective essay, the names of Dawood Rehber and Shaikh Mansoor Elahi deserve special mention. In the field of the travelogue and raportage, the late Mahmood Nizami, Akhtar Riazuddin, Ibne Insha, Jalis, Ashfaq Ahmad and Shafiq-ur-Rehman have made valuable contributions.

Criticism and Research: In literary research and criticism, Dr. Syed Abdullah, Syed Vaqar Azim, Dr. Muhammad Sadiq, Syed Ebadat Beralvi, Dr. Abu-l-Lais Siddiqi, Dr. Shaukat Sabzwari and Dr. Shadani addressed themselves mostly to students and scholars of Urdu literature, interpreting our classical heritage, whereas Mumtaz Shirin, Ahsan Farooqi, Jamil Jalibi, Sajjad Baqir Rizvi and Intizar Husain concerned themselves mainly with the appreciation of contemporary writing. Considerable new research has been done on Iqbal and Ghalib — two of the pillars of Urdu poetry. These critics represent a cross-section of opinion in their respective fields.

Some institutions and organizations

have rendered considerable service in the field of literary research and compilation. The Iqbal Academy devoted itself to research and writing on Iqbal and his philosophy. The Urdu Development Board of Karachi undertook the monumental task of preparing the first Urdu dictionary on historical and etymological principles on the pattern of the Oxford Dictionary. The Anjuman-e-Taraqqi-e-Urdu has published many classical works and annotated rare manuscripts. The Majlis-e-Taraqqi-e-Adab of Lahore has published inexpensive reprints of the best writings of the nineteenth century, which were out of print. The Central Urdu Development Board and the West Pakistan Urdu Academy, along with a number of other organizations, prepared scientific texts for higher grades in schools and for colleges. The Urdu edition of the *Leydon Encyclopaedia of Islam* has been in preparation at Lahore, and a special organization has been created for the purpose. A large number of books on scientific subjects have been written for children and new literates at the instance of certain publishers and organizations.

With the accelerated pace of development in the economic and educational fields, the demand for books is growing, and industrious publishing organizations are doing their best to meet that demand. Literary journals have played a major role in the motivation of creative writing and research: for instance *Urdu*, *Urdu Nama* and *Iqbal Review* in the field of research, and *Naqoosh*, *Fanoon*, *Sawera*, *Naya Daur*, *Seep*, and *Auraq* in the creative field. All these are quarterlies. Among monthlies, *Saqi*, *Adabi Dunya*, *Afkar*, *Mahe Nau* and *Adabe Latif* continued to make their contribution. One important development is the vogue of magazines like *Urdu Digest*, *Sayyara Digest* and *Alami Digest*. These are of the size, though not exactly on the pattern, of the *Readers Digest*, mostly containing original and unpublished writings. As they cater to popular taste and demand, they have been growing in number and circulation.

In conclusion, mention may be made of a theme which has been responsible for many a piece of powerful writing. It was India's sudden attack on Pakistan on the morning of September 6, 1965. The valiant resistance of Pakistan's armed forces and the civil population is an unforgettable chapter of Pakistan's history. Urdu writers were in the vanguard of this struggle and it has profoundly influenced their work. A number of poems, stories and songs have recorded the events of the war and the mood of the people with a moving quality all their own.

BENGALI

Bengali is one of the oldest of the languages now used in the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent and is derived from the eastern *prakrit* group of the Indo-Aryan family of languages. The earliest available specimen of Bengali literature dates from the Seventh century A.D. After the Muslim conquest, Bengali literature received enthusiastic patronage from Muslim rulers, and it developed a dynamic and rich literature. Individually, Muslim writers also made a definite contribution to its development during the Middle Ages.

The Muslim writers struck a different

note by introducing Muslim legends in place of myths and tales of Hindu origin. Inspired by Persian literature, the mediaeval poets of Bengal started writing romantic verse tales. This change in themes brought about a noticeable change in the linguistic pattern also. The most important aspect of the love tales written by Muslim poets is the humanistic approach hitherto unknown in this literature. One of the earliest known Muslim writers of romance was Shah Muhammad Saghir in the 14th century, the author of *Yusuf Zuleikha*. Another notable poet was Daulat Wazir Bahram Khan who, in the 16th century, wrote *Laila Majnu*, a romantic legend. Another group of poets which needs special mention flourished in the Arakan Court in the 17th century. The most celebrated writer of this group was Alaol who translated *Padumabat* of Malik Muhammad Jaisi and *Haft Paikar* and *Sikandarnama* from the original of the great Persian poet, Nizami. This shows the new influence of Persian mystic poetry, The chapter of mediaeval Bengali literature closes with the death of Bharat Chandra, the greatest poet of the 18th century.

The advent of British rule seems to have dried up creative energies, and for for a long time no great poet was born. But the stream of literary activity was kept going by a group of *punthi* writers and *kaviwallas*. *Punthis* are long narrative verse tales written in an artificial style on themes mostly taken from myths, legends and Islamic history. Several thousands of them were written in the eighteenth century; and because of the presence of a larger number of words adopted from the Persian and Arabic languages, the diction of these *punthis* has come to be known as *dobbashi* or bi-lingual. Presumably, in the urban areas this language became the standard speech of the people, but the poetic form became stagnant and was gradually outmoded by the beginning of the 19th century. Two poets of the 18th century were outstanding: Garibullah and Syed Hamza.

With the establishment of the Hindu College in Calcutta and the rapid spread of English education, a new horizon was discovered. New poetic forms emerged and new styles were introduced. Bengali prose originated under the patronage of the missionaries of Srirampur and the teachers of the Fort William College. As the Hindus, unlike the Muslims, quickly accepted the change, they reaped the benefits too.

Muslims gradually disappeared from this scene. Hindu writers soon started writing highly revivalistic epics recalling the past of the Hindus through their legends, myths and history. The period produced some outstanding poets of Bengali literature, including the great epic poet Michael Madhusudan Dutta, but Muslim participation in literary activity was not evident until the middle of the nineteenth century.

In the year 1863, a Muslim literary association was formed by the name of Mohammedan Literary Society, under the presidentship of Nawab Abdul Latif. Interest spread and it was felt that Muslim values should be reassessed and rediscovered in the light of the rapid changes that were taking place as a result of the infiltration of western ideas. This urge for revivalism was in fact a reaction to Hindu revivalism. Separate tendencies began to emerge,

and Muslim poets like Kaikobad, Ismail Hussain Shirazee and prose writers like Meer Musharraf Husain, Mozammel Huq and Muniruzzaman Islamabadi strengthened them.

By the time Pakistan had come into being, Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), the great Bengali poet and writer, was already dead, but his influence had penetrated into all spheres of Bengali literature.

Development of language: During the past 20 years, there has been great progress in all spheres of Bengali literature and the development of the language. The Bengali Development Board was set up in 1962 which, until January 1966, had received Central Government financial assistance amounting to Rs. 2,025,000.

By December 1966, the Central Board had published 19 books: eight on science, six on humanities, four reference books, and one on Islamic affairs. Another 24 books are in the press and 19 are at the manuscript stage.

The Board has made a great effort to meet the demand for good dictionaries. It has published a study on the *Perso-Arabic Element in Bengali* by Shaikh Ghulam M. Hilali and Part I of a *Bengali-Urdu Dictionary* by Faiz Ahmad Choudhury. Now, in addition to Part II of this Dictionary, a Bengali-English Dictionary is also under preparation.

Poetry: Although Nazrul Islam stopped writing poetry before Independence, he is nevertheless an integral part of the Muslim tradition, and is in fact a pioneer of Muslim renaissance. Nazrul Islam created a significant world of his own. He was eloquently different from others, unmistakably unique in his attitude towards life, and that is why he could create a new tradition of forceful writings. He did not accept the pattern and rhythm of the *punthis*; but, as in the *punthis*, he drew inspiration from Muslim myths and history. In his poems he used Arabic and Persian words extensively and effectively. This was also in keeping with the *punthi* tradition, but his language had a new vitality and force. He explored the vast possibility of Bengali and created a vocabulary of his own, drawing imagery from Muslim life and tradition to suit his profuse emotive exuberance.

Jasimuddin is another powerful poet of this period. Like Nazrul Islam, he also introduced a new trend in Bengali poetry. He derived his inspiration, style and diction from the innumerable folk ballads written in East Bengal. The life he depicts is essentially of rural Bengal, serene, simple, calm and free from complex modern sensibility. The absence of urban sophistication in his poems does not mean that he was unaware of modern trends. All he wanted was to revive the ballad form and modernize it. This is how he kept the folk traditions of East Pakistan alive.

The poet Gholam Mustafa had a penetrating poetic sensibility expressed with a singularly melodius and clear use of words. Two major trends are clearly visible in his poems. One is represented by a strong urge to revive the glorious past and rehabilitate Islamic values; the other by songs of love and beauty.

Other notable poets are Abdul Qadir,

Begum Sufia Kamal, Shahadat Husain, Sufi Motahar Hussain, Kader Nawaz, Mohiuddin, Mianuddin and Benazeer Ahmed. Of these, Abdul Qadir is a powerful writer who has demonstrated considerable success in using the classical pattern of diction mainly to write of love, combining realism with romanticism. Shahadat Husain essentially belonged to the romantic school of Tagore. His poems are sweet, sonorous and melodious. Begum Sufia Kamal is a lyricist, always giving expression to her personal experience with utmost sincerity, successfully transmuting it into universal artistic experience. Sufi Motahar Husain and Kader Nawaz, again, wrote in the pattern of Tagore. Mohiuddin, Mianuddin and Benazeer Ahmed were largely influenced by Nazrul Islam. Sufi Motahar Husain deserves particular attention as a writer of sonnets.

All these poets flourished in pre-Independence Bengal, and all of them, except Nazrul Islam, came to Dacca after Independence. In East Pakistan, they form the older group of poets. Except Ghulam Mustafa and Shahadat Husain who are now dead, they still write, but modern trends do not seem to have brought about much change in their style or approach.

Coming to the younger poets, in the early forties, the air was filled with political movements. They agitated the minds of the poets and writers of Bengal, and after the acceptance of the historic Lahore Resolution, Muslim poets became enthusiastic about their tradition. A vigorous search went on for new vehicles of expression, for new imagery drawn from intimate Muslim sources. About this time, a few translations of Iqbal were published in Bengali, and this gave new vitality and impetus to already stirred and agitated young minds. As a consequence, two literary societies were established: the Pakistan Renaissance Society in Calcutta, in 1941, with the monthly *Muhammadi* and the daily *Azad* as its chief organs, and Purba Pakistan Sahitya Sangsad (East Pakistan Literary Association) in Dacca, in 1942, with the fortnightly *Pakistan* as its journal. These societies wanted to explore the possibilities of revitalizing old sources of inspiration. Farrukh Ahmad, Syed Ali Ahsan and Talim Hussain were conspicuous in these new ventures.

Farrukh Ahmad's first book of poems, *Saat Shagarer Majhi* (published in 1944), is an example of his intense emotional exuberance. To him the emotionally perceived world of vision is more true than the world he lives in. Though Farrukh has some similarity with Nazrul in so far as the revival of the Muslim tradition is concerned, yet they differ in the presentation of this tradition. Nazrul never allegorized or symbolized the tradition or the myths, as he derived the imagery from his own experience. Farrukh, on the other hand, always symbolizes the use of a myth.

Before Independence, Syed Ali Ahsan had a similar enthusiasm for recreating the glorious Muslim past in the perspective of the present. His *Chahar Darvesh*, *Mokka Moazzamar Pathey* and two verse-plays, written after the pattern of Yeats plays, *Korbani* and *Zohra-o-Mushtari*, bear clear testimony to this. In the post-Independence days, however, his approach changed. While continuing to adapt Western

forms to his own ends, he began to write lyrical poetry in which the joys of life were dominant themes.

Talim Husain also uses the Muslim tradition in his verse. He is successful in rendering his ideas with true poetic sensibility. He has also shown great craftsmanship in using Arabic and Persian words with striking effectiveness.

Ahsan Habib is a socially conscious poet who feels intensely for suffering humanity, but presents people with subjective and impressionistic imagery. His sympathy with the underdog and his intimate awareness of social problems do not seem to have aroused any poignant emotional conflict in him. His poetic sensibility is not torn by the restlessness of the modern world, and his vision is not perturbed by the complexities of modern society, though he does dwell on them. He is basically a poet of hope and faith in eternal values.

Like Ahsan Habib, Abul Husain is also a poet of social sensibility, but his poems are highly individualistic. He always tries to keep out the conventional, and uses a rugged colloquial poetic diction even in his love poems.

Sikander Abu Jafar, who started writing before Independence, has a deep social consciousness and awareness of his environment combined with a vigorous optimism about the future of man.

Sanaul Huq's sensitive poetry is particularly remarkable for his experiments with metre and his ingenious use of words.

Abdul Gani Hazari depicts the tormented society in which he lives and from which he draws his imagery. Other poets of this group are Motiul Islam, Syed Nooruddin, Habibur Rahman, Ashraf Siddiqui and Mufakharul Islam.

In the youngest group of Bengali poets of note, Shamsur Rahman is outstanding. He started writing in a romantic vein, but later discovered his true poetic fervour in a different style. He is a typically urban poet, and has rendered the sorrows and frustrations of modern man with surprisingly keen sensitiveness. His imagery is mostly drawn from the varied experience of the life of urban Bengal. In fact, his poems are vivid pictures of this life; and he received the Adamjee Award for his book *Roudra Karatit*.

Other promising young poets include: Hasan Hafizur Rahman, Syed Shamsul Haq, Mahfoozullah, Abu Mena Mustafa Kamal, Al-Mahmud, Zia Haider, Muniruzzaman.

Fiction: Before Independence, there were scarcely any Muslim fiction writers. After the great historical novel *Bishad Sindhu* by Meer Mosharaf Husain, who wanted to present the past heritage of Muslims idealistically, Ismail Husain Shirazee also wrote a number of novels inspired by the same desire, but they are more romances than novels.

Among the novelists who followed, Kazi Imdadul Huq showed acute social observation in his novel, *Abdullah*. He saw life with deep introspection, and in *Abdullah* he depicted the conflict

between two classes of people: one group representing old beliefs and superstitions and the other modern attitudes of rational and logical thinking. Lutfur Rahman, an elegant prose writer of Muslim Bengal, also wrote some novels dealing mostly with human values. Several Muslim authors considerably developed this form. Some of them are Wajed Ali, Shahadat Husain, Ibrahim Khan, Akbaruddin, Sheikh Fazlul Karim, Abul Mansur Ahmed, Mahbubul Alam, and Abul Fazal. Kazi Nazrul Islam, the celebrated poet, is also a significant fiction writer.

Mahbubul Alam who has been writing since pre-Independence days, has a powerful pen. His remarkable book, *Mofizan*, reveals deep and penetrating psychological and social understanding. His characters are portrayed with remarkable insight and a dignified sense of humour. Some critics have found a similarity between the female characters created by him and those created by D.H. Lawrence. He mostly deals with middle and lower middle class life.

Abul Fazal is a very successful story teller. He is a socially conscious writer, but does not dwell on class struggles. His characters are very lively and vivid, and he writes with a simple, elegant, effortless style. Like Mahbubul Alam, he also depicts the problems of middle class people.

Syed Waliullah is one of our most significant and successful story tellers. In his book, *Lal Shalu*, he has depicted the evils of society with sympathetic feeling and critical insight. The artistic and objective presentation of a major social evil and its masterly treatment stand out. In his short stories, also, his penetrating insight is distinctly seen. He is a realist but not a mere narrator of realistic events.

Abu Rushd, another older novelist, writes on social problems and presents them skilfully with absorbing plots. He is not an experimentalist and, so, he does not usually introduce new themes. His book, *Samne Notun Din*, is a vivid portrayal of contemporary society and its problems.

Shamsuddin Abul Kalam, who has many novels to his credit, depicts the life of poor, unsophisticated common folk of his own part of the country. He has the vision and insight of a true novelist and a poetic sensibility which lend most of his novels and short stories a lyrical quality. Abu Ishaq's *Surja Dighal Bari*, too, gives an excellent portrayal of characters drawn from poverty-stricken rural life.

There are some outstanding writers who are different from the rest in approach and attitude. Among them Showkat Osman is remarkable. The most important aspect of his work is social criticism. He is greatly concerned with class differences in society, and portrays the class conflict with sympathy for the poor and the underprivileged. In depicting the unhappiness and misery of these people, he makes fruitful and extensive use of irony and satire. His book *Kritadasher Hashi* won the Adamjee Prize.

Alauddin-al-Azad, who belongs to the same school, is a powerful writer with subtlety and restraint of expres-

sion. In depicting the class struggle his emphatic realism is counte balanced by his artistic subtlety.

Shahid Ali, who was once regarded as a promising short story writer, has not been writing much recently. His stories are centred around the poor peasant class of north Bengal, and by using vivid pictorial imagery, he successfully presents the problems of poor people.

Among others who have shown great promise are Sadar Zainuddin, Syed Shamsul Huq, Shahid Sabir, Zahir Raihan, Rashid Karim, Abdur Razzak and Shahiddullah Kaiser. All of them have a distinct style of their own. The last four have received the Adamjee Prize.

Criticism: After Independence, the first history of Bengali literature was written by Nazirul Islam who has a facile style. His intention was to present some new assessments which so far had not become acceptable. Dr. Shahiddullah's *History of Bengali Literature* and *History of Bengali Language* are both books of profound scholarship and erudition. Abdul Latif Chowdhry's *History of Bengali Literature* is an addition in this field. Dr. Enamul Huq's *Muslim Bangla Sahitya*, an English translation of which is also available, has provided scholarly research material. Syed Ali Ashraf's *Muslim Tradition in Bengali Literature* made the readers of Bengali literature conscious of the typical Muslim traditions that have existed and are still influencing Bengali literature. Mohammad Mansuruddin's *Bangla Shahitye Muslim Shadhana* is also a notable addition, but probably the best work of this kind is *Bangla Shahityer Itibrittwa*, a joint endeavour of Syed Ali Ahsan and Muhammad Abdul Hai. Both authors have shown remarkable critical ability. Dr. Quazi Din Muhammad's *Shahitya Shambhar* is a valuable book of literary criticism. Dr. Kazi Manan's recent book *Bangla Shahitye Muslim Shadhana* is a valuable addition with some really original thinking. Anisuzzaman's *Bangla Shahitya-o-Muslim Manash* is a significant publication; and Dr. Nilima Ibrahim's *Unabingsha Shatabdir Bangla Shamja-o-Bangla Natak* is a serious study of the development of the Bengali stage and drama. Apart from these, a number of books have appeared in recent years on the life and work of Kazi Nazrul Islam. The first of these was written by Syed Ali Ahsan who made a sound critical assessment of the poet. Another book on the topic is Quazi Motahar Husain's *Nazrul Kavyh Parichiti*. Dr. Nilima Ibrahim's *Sharat Prativa* is a voluminous critical study of Sharat Chandra.

Many books have been written on other literary and cultural subjects. such as Motahar Husain Chowdhry's *Shahitya Shangskriti Katha*, a very valuable study. Muhammad Abdul Hai's *Shahitya-o-Shangskriti*, *Bhasha-o-Shahitya* and *Toshamod-o-Rajnitir Bhasha* are enjoyable books of criticism. Abul Fazal's *Shahitya-o-Shangskriti Shadhan* and Abul Kalam Shamsuddin's *Drishtikon* are two other competent endeavours. Dr. Mazharul Islam has published *Shahitya Pathey*, and Ahmed Rafiq's *Shilpa Shangskriti Jiran* is an intellectual and analytical work.

Only a few critics have written on the principles and forms of literary criticism. They have attempted to synthesize the new criticism that was flourishing in England under the in-

fluence of Eliot and Bengali's own literary traditions. They include: Syed Ali Ahsan, Syed Ali Ashraf, Syed Sajjad Hussain, Munir Chowdhry and Hasan Hafizur Rahman. In his book *Karitar Katha*, Syed Ali Ahsan drew inspiration from Eliot's music of poetry and his interest in the structure of words. He also indicated that in order to appreciate modern poetry, critics should get rid of their conventional notions of images and similes. In his later essays, however, he has been trying to interpret the poetic tradition by stressing the central linguistic tradition of Bengali poetry. Syed Ali Ashraf in his *Kavya Parichaya* tried to trace certain common principles which he found in both Western and Eastern aesthetics. In particular, he judges the greatness of a poem by analysing how far the poet has been able to integrate emotional and intellectual aspects of his consciousness.

Continuous efforts to find new methods of critical assessment have considerably influenced the younger group of poets and critics in East Pakistan.

Drama: In the field of play writing, East Pakistan has made a considerable contribution. In the pre-Independence days, there were few Muslim playwrights, because Muslims were indifferent towards drama and the art of acting. Prominent at that time, however, were Mosharraf Husain, Mohammad Abdul Karim, Nazrul Islam, Ebrahim Khan, Shahadat Husain, Akbaruddin and Nurul Momen. The first among them was Meer Musharraf Husain, who in his play, *Zamindar Darpan*, depicted the evils of the Permanent Settlement. Incidentally, this is the first socially conscious drama written by a Muslim. After that, an upsurge of nationalism flooded Bengali literature. Hindu dramatists wrote plays on nationalistic themes which brought a sense of awakening in the Muslim mind and, as a result, Muslims started writing plays on these themes. Further inspiration was found in the regeneration of Turkey. Ebrahim Khan wrote two plays about the two Turkish heroes, *Kamal Pasha* and *Zaglul Pasha*. His *Kofela* also reflects the hopes and aspirations of the emerging Muslim middle class. Shahadat Husain wrote historical plays: *Sarfaraz Khan*, *Nawab Alibardi*, *Anarkali* and *Mansade Moha*. Kazi Nazrul Islam wrote two romantic plays, *Jhilimili* and *Aleya*, in addition to his poems on *Anwar Pasha*, *Kamal Pasha* and *Chiranjib Zaglul*.

Another dramatist who wrote some good historical drama is Akbaruddin. His first play *Shindhu Bijay* is based on the conquest of Sind by Muhammad Bin Quasim, and he wrote another historical drama, on a similar theme, entitled *Nadir Shah*. Abul Fazal attempted to dramatize the life of the Quaid-i-Azam.

The most outstanding among the post-Independence playwrights is Nurul Momen. The first play of the dramatist, *Nemesis*, is a long one act play published in 1948. It was hailed as the first conscious effort of dramatic craftsmanship in East Pakistan. The second work of Nurul Momen is *Rupantar*, which has some similarity with the *Chirakumar Shabha* of Tagore, in so far as its wit and characterization are concerned. His latest drama *Naya Khandan* is a success, and Nurul Momen has certainly opened up a new avenue in the field of drama.

Munir Chowdhry is also a very powerful playwright. In his *Kabar*, a one act play, he has expressed a social truth with great success. His dialogues are sharp and forceful and he has a fine sense of humour. His *Manush* and *Raktata Prantar*, based on the battle of Panipat, have e s t a b l i s h e d him as an eminent playwright of the language. His translation of Shaw's *You Never Can Tell* is also a valuable addition to dramatic literature.

A new experiment in Bengali drama is Farrukh Ahmed's verse play, *Naufel-o-Hotem*. The dialogues are sentimental and romantic, and he has experimented in metre forms.

Syed Waliullah's *Bahipir* deals with a novel story. It won the PEN prize. He is essentially a novelist and so his play shows the characteristics of a novel.

Other playwrights who deserve mention are Askar Ibne Shaikh, Showkat Osman, Jasimuddin, Ibrahim Khalil, Gholam Rahman, Ashrafuzzaman, Obaidul Huq and Abdul Huq.

PUNJABI

fact remains that these various languages (and their literatures) spoken in the area of the former Punjab province, show great similarities of literary features and very close linguistic affinity. It is so because all of them belong to the Indo-Aryan family of languages prevalent in the northern part of the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent. The base of these languages was the *prakrits* which were spoken by the common people of these areas before the emergence of Islam as a political, social and cultural force in the Sub-continent. All of them underwent a profound transformation during 1000 years of Muslim rule. Their syntactical form continued more or less unchanged, but the predominant element of their vocabulary became a mixture of Persian, Arabic and Turkish words. This feature is most pronounced in Punjabi as well as in the other languages now spoken in West Pakistan.

There is a great deal of recorded literature in Punjabi, starting from the *kabits* of Sheikh Farid of Pak Pattan in the 13th century. But a much larger volume of literature which waits to be recorded is the folk poetry preserved

phorical-allusive structure is built on the common experiences of the working people — peasants and artisans — as well as on local legends and Islamic history and traditions.

The narrative poetry composed in various rhythms and metres, both indigenous and those prevalent in Persian and Arabic, is found in *Qissa*, *Noor Nama* (biography of the prophet Mohammad, peace be on him), *Gulzar* (History of the prophets), *Jang nama* (mostly based on incidents of Karbela), and *Vahr*. The subject matter of Qissa and Vahr consists of legends and romances, lives of imaginary or real lovers, heroes and saints, as well as stories from the Quran and Islamic history. There are also poems relating to actual contemporary historical events.

The major names in this *genre* are Damodar (1556-1605) the writer of the earliest extant version of the romance of Hir and Ranjha; Pilu's *Mirza Sahiban* (17th century); Hafiz Barkhurdar's *Mirza Sahiban* (late 17th century); Muqbil's (1718-1748) *Jang Nama* and *Hir Ranjha*; Waris Shah's *Hir Ranjha*, the greatest poem in the Punjabi language (18th century); *Sassi Punnun* of Hashim Shah (1753-1823); Najabat's *Nadir Shah di Vahr* (early 18th century); Hamid Shah Abbasi's (b. 1748) *Jang Nama*; Qadir Yar's (1802-1850) *Puran Bhagat*; Fazal Shah's (1827-90) *Hir Ranjha* and *Sohni Mahinwal*; Mian Mohammad's (1828-1906) *Saiful Muluk*; Maulvi Ghulam Rasul's (1824-1903) *Yusuf Zulaikha*; Mohammad Buta's (1851-1930) *Mirza Sahiban*.

These are but a few of the large number of works which can be regarded as classics of Punjabi literature. Their major common characteristic is the close relationship that the poets establish between the world of physical existence and the world of the spirit. In a sense, they may be regarded as essentially secular poetry, but looked at in another way, they are symbolic of a deeper religious meaning.

The late 19th and early 20th century Punjabi literature shows a marked tendency towards formalism and merely decorative verbal play. Mian Hidayat Ullah, Ishq Lehr, Maula Bakhsh Kushta, Pir Fazal, Faqir Mohammad Faqir, Sain Feroz are the great names of this period. They seem to lay more stress on stylistic and linguistic polish and decoration, rather than on depth of content. There are, however, such names in the early 20th century poets as Chiragh Din Daman, Hamdam, Sharaf, Joshua Fazal-ud-Din and Abdul-Majid Bhatti, who have made an attempt to discard formalism and take a closer look at contemporary reality and the life patterns evolved by changing times.

Since Independence a new wave of Punjabi writing has been in evidence. Its major exponents are Sharif Kunjahi, Ahmed Rahi, Munir Nayazi, Safdar Mir, Anis Naqi and S ltan Mahmud Ashufta. These poets and the large numbers of their younger followers seem to be moved by an urgency to change the traditional patterns of Punjabi literature both in content and form. The influence of modern world literature is very strong in their works, which may be generally described as an attempt at urbanization of literary activity. They affect a realism which is of the city, and has little connection with the realities of the peasant economy

reflected in the poetry of the classic poets. The movement, however, is still in its infancy.

There is not much prose writing, though excellent material has appeared in *genres* as various as drama, novel, short story, light essay and literary criticism. The most important recent event in Punjabi literature was the intensely patriotic, spontaneous poetry produced during and immediately after the September War in 1965. It revealed the immense vitality and powerful imaginative possibilities of the language, as well as the rich creative resources of the Punjabi poets.

SINDHI

SINDHI appears to have been spoken in the Indus delta from time immemorial. It is quite conceivable that the language of the people of Mohenjo-daro, as yet unfortunately not deciphered, contained elements of the present Sindhi language.

There is a difference of opinion on whether Sindhi has descended directly from Sanskrit or from a dialect of it. It is clear from the observations of Istakhri and Maqdisi that in their time (tenth century A.D.) it was the language of Daibul, Mansurah and Multan. Ibn Nadim and Albiruni (both of the tenth century) have also told us about the original script of the language which later on took the form of the Arabic *Naskh*.

It is not certain when the present language acquired a written form or when its speakers began to compose verses in it. There is no evidence of Sindhi poetry in recorded history until the reign of the Abbasid Khalifa Haroon-ar-Rashid, when a poet from Sind appeared at the court of the minister Fazl ibne Yahya Barmaki (d. 808 A.D.), and recited a verse in his native tongue. The meaning of its Arabic version is:

> "*When glorious deeds are mentioned*
> *in our country,*
> *It is your name which is cited*
> *as an example.*"

Unfortunately the words of this verse have been corrupted by Sindhi scribes in such a way that it is impossible to make anything out of it.

After the advent of Islam, a number of Sindhi scholars not only wrote books in Arabic on various aspects of Islam, but also composed poetry of a high standard in that language. It may be assumed that these scholars wrote in their own language also, but no such written works have come down to us to support the assumption. Through verbal tradition, however, we can trace the beginning of refined Sindhi poetry back to the dominance of the Ghaznavids in Sind. During the rule of the Soomras and Sammas, Sindhis produced excellent poetry, and among the earliest and best known poets we find the names of Sayyed Ali of Thatta, Hazrat Makhdoom Nooh of Halla, Kazi Qazan of Thatta and their younger contemporary, Shah Abdul Karim of Bulri, the great grandfather of Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai.

Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai (1689-1752 A.D.) lived during the Kalhora period. He perfected Sindhi poetry both in form and in content, and he remains the unchallenged master of Sindhi verse. His poetry is deeply rooted in the soil of Sind, yet it has a universal

appeal. So great is the impact of his immortal work on Sindhi literature that one hears its distinct echo in all the poetry produced by later generations. From the time of Shah Latif to the British conquest of Sind there were a large number of Sindhi poets, such as Mohammad Zaman Luwariwalla, Shah Inayat, Abd-ur-Rahim Grohari, Sachal Sarmast, Bedil, and Sabit Ali Shah Sabit, whose *diwans* (works) are still to be found. It is to be noted that Sindhi was the court language in the days of the Soomras, the Sammas, and later on, during the Lalhora and Talpur periods.

The British, with the help of experts, undertook a reform of the Sindhi alphabet with a view to bringing the written language in line with the spoken word. As a result the alphabet increased from 30 to the 52 letters it has today.

It was in the British period that really good prose began to be produced in Sindhi. Syed Miran Mohammad Shah-I of Tikhir, Divan Kewal Ram, Ghulam Husain and Akhund Latifullah are among the early prominent prose writers. But Shams-ul-Ulama Mirza Qilich Beg can be rightly called the father of modern Sindhi prose. He is said to have written or translated from other languages over three hundred books. There were, however, many contemporaries of Mirza Qilich Beg who were great prose writers in their own right, such as Hakim Fateh Muhammad Sehwani, Kazi Hidayatullah Mushtaque, Allama Asadullah Shah Fida, Abd-ur-Razak Memon, Maulvi Din Muhammad Wafi, Muhammad Siddique Musafir, Muhammad Hashim Mukhlis, Shamsuddin Bulbul, Dr. H. M. Gurbuxani, Beeroomal Mihrchand, Lalchand Amardinnomal, S. C. Shahani, Jethmal Persram, Allama I. I. Kazi, Dr. U. M. Daudpota, Syed Miran Muhammad Shah-II, Pir Ali Muhammad Rashdi, Syed Hussamuddin Rashdi, Usman Ali Ansari, Atta Hussain Shah Moosvi, Abdul Hussain Shah Moosvi and several others.

Long before the British rule Sindhi poetry had entered a new phase under the influence of Persian poetry. Not only were various forms of Persian poetry adopted by Sindhi poets, but they also borrowed many ideas from Iran which were, strictly speaking, foreign to the soil of Sind and the product of a different cast of mind. It was because of this that the Ghazal and some other forms of poetry composed in the Sindhi language did not become popular among the masses. There were, however, some poets such as Mohammad Qasim, Murtazai Thattavi, Gul Mohammad Gul, Sayed Gada, Hafiz Hamid, Abdul Hussain Sangi, Zaman Shah and others who, in spite of having adopted Persian forms, derived their inspiration from the classical Sindhi poets. Their work has therefore been popular among the masses as well as people of more sophisticated taste. There were others who continued to compose poetry in indigenous forms using the Sindhi language in its purest character. Noteworthy among them are Misree Shah, Makhdoom Muhammad Amin, Mahdee Shah, Hafiz Shah, Sahibdino Shah, Wali Muhammad Laghari and Hammal Fakir.

In modern times, the progress of education and the impact of Western civilization have widened the outlook of Sindhi writers and given them new impetus. Research scholars, linguists, poets, playwrights, short story writers

and novelists have produced works of real merit, which can be rightly regarded as a great contribution to Sindhi literature.

Among the many literary organizations serving the cause of Sindhi language and literature at present, the Sindhi Adabi Board has achieved international recognition by its solid publication work. The board has to its credit over 350 published books and the quarterly journal *Mehran* in Sindhi, which was started in 1955. There are several daily newspapers being published in Sindhi such as *Ibrat*, *Nawa-i-Sind* and *Khadim-i-Watan*, besides a number of weeklies.

PUSHTO

PUSHTO is the language of the Pathans. It is spoken by some 10,000,000 people, of whom about half live in the north western region of Pakistan. It belongs to the East Iranian group of languages and contains many Persian and Arabic words.

Pushto has a very rich tradition of folk poetry which goes back to Amir Karor who wrote a thousand years ago. With Khushal Khan Khattak and Rehman Baba in the Mughal period, however, Pushto poetry came of age. Their work bears comparison with the poetry of any other major language. *Pata Khazana* by Muhamed Hotak is a work of considerable merit recording the early history of Pushto language and literature.

During the British period, the tribal region in the north west was in perpetual revolt. British influence did not therefore penetrate to the rural areas, and Pushto poetry and prose retained a specifically Pathan character. After Independence, education spread rapidly and extensively, and there was a corresponding widening of the intellectual horizon. The Pushto Academy, Peshawar, and other literary societies and educational institutions, such as Islamia College Peshawar and Edward's College Peshawar, helped the growth of Pushto literature. Short stories, plays and poems appeared in weeklies and monthlies, such as *Abaseen*, *Jamhur-e-Islam*, *Ulus*, and the Journal of the Pushto Academy. The folk poetry, with its traditional metres, such as *lobha, charbaita, neemakai, rubai, badalla, tappa,* nevertheless retained its popularity and flourished side by side with *ghazals* and other sophisticated forms of poetry.

Pushto Darsiat and Idara-i-Matbuat-i-Pakistan have published many collections of classical Pushto poetry, Pushto translations of Urdu poetry and books on other important philosophical and literary topics. Some of the more noteworthy books which have appeared lately are mentioned below:

Diwan-e-Hijri—Compiled by Namaih Khalil.
De Zamir Awaz—Compiled by Namaih Khalil.
Pakhtona Leekwal—Compiled by Namaih Khalil.
Tarikh-e-Reyasat-e-Swat—Asaf.
Armanuna—Mutifullah.
Anware Tauheed—Ghulam Rabbani.
Dars-e-Amal—Abdullah Jan Asar.
Palashe—Abdullah Jan Asar.
Saluama Aus—Abdullah Jan Asar.
Afkar-e-Khattak—Mohammad Zaman Khattak.
Tareekhe-Pashtoon—Qazi Ataulla Jan.
Sarf-o-Nahvo—Azim Shah Bokhari.

Al Farooq—Ghulam Qadir.
Diwan—Abd-ur-Rahman.
Diwan—Abd-ul-Hamid Masho Khalil.
Dabedia Culna—Syed Rasul Raza.
Kawake—Mohammad Ashraf Maftoon.

BALUCHI

THE ORIGINS of Baluchi are shrouded in the obscurities of pre-history. It is the language of an arid tableland which witnessed the Stone Age hunter settle down to agriculture and which, in later eras, lay on the outskirts of several ancient civilizations and great empires. Many cultures have therefore made their contribution to the evolution of the Baluchi tongue down the ages. The most enduring and prominent influence is, of course, to be traced to neighbouring Iran in the west and the regions in the north and the east.

Classical Baluchi literature is mostly in the form of ballads and folks songs. It has reached us through generations of bards and minstrels who preserved it in their memory for centuries, without any change.

The earliest historians who mentioned the Baluchis in their works are Masudi, whose chronicle is dated 943 A.D., and Istakhri, who wrote about 951 A.D. But Baluchi literature did not come to the notice of the world until about 1830 when an English tourist, W. Leech, carried out research on the Baluchi language and literature, and published his report in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*.

After that a number of English and other scholars visited the far-flung areas of Baluchistan and studied its language and literature. Longworth Dames, Hithuram and Burton rendered great services by collecting classical poems, folk songs and stories, which otherwise would have been lost. Mayer's *Baluchi Classics* (London, 1900) Pierce's *A Description of Mekrani Baluchi Dialect* (1875), Gladstone's *Baluchi Handbook* (1874), Mockler's *A Grammer of the Baluchi Language* (London, 1877), Lord Bruce's *Manual and Vocabulary of the Baluchi Language*, and *Notes on the Baluchi Tribes of Derajat*, are important contributions to the history of the Baluchi language and literature.

The history of Baluchi literature may be divided into four periods:
1. Early medieval period — 1430 to 1600.
2. Later medieval period — 1600 to 1850.
3. Modern period — 1850 to 1930.
4. Contemporary period — 1930 up to date.

The ancient and the early medieval periods of Baluchi history were full of unrest, disruption and ceaseless conflict. There was a thirty years' war between Rind and Lashari tribes. The wars between Sardar Bijjar Rind and Shahdad Dodai, between Hassan Gorghej, Baalach and Bevergh Puzh, the tragic romance of Hani and Shah Mureed, the love story of Grannaz and Bevergh and the mournful separation of Shahdad and Mahnaz, all are poignantly recounted in Baluchi poetry.

The rough and rugged mountains and the desert land of Baluchistan have made its inhabitants hardy, industrious and daring, but their physical environment could not deprive them of finer feelings, romantic ballads and eloquent expression. Through their classical

ballads one can get a glimpse of the past life of the Baluchis, their social order, tribal warfare, standard of life and occupation, ethical and aesthe- values, religious beliefs, their joys and sorrows, hopes and fears.

The Baluchi ballads which are very long, have three categories: war ballads, romantic ballads and ballads describing the geneology and history of the Baluchis. The element of drama is at its highest in a form of poetry called *pegor*, in which the poet or hero taunts his opponents.

The ballads are mostly based on the real events of the period. The poet does not narrate these events as a third person but does so as one of the main characters or the hero of the story. He expresses hims:lf fluently and clearly in verses free of rhyme, vividly describes the natural surroundings, and makes full use of metaphors and similies.

Mir Chakar Rind, Bevergh Rind, Nodhbaudagh Lashari 'the gold scatterer', Shah Murid, Shahdad, Ballach and Mubarik are the well-known poets of early times.

LITERARY AWARDS AND PRIZES

In the ultimate sense, good writing furnishes its own reward; but concrete expressions of appreciation for quality are welcome incentives for both writers and publishers — particularly in a country where creative writing is not a particularly remunerative occupation. This is the case because the market for literature, and therefore the size of editions, are restricted by low literacy, poor purchasing power, and underdeveloped literary taste among a considerable sector of the affluent.

In this situation, the growing series of literary awards and prizes established since 1958 present a significant contribution to the encouragement of creative writing and good books. A list of 14 literary awards and prizes is given below, and detailed information on them is available from the Pakistan Writer's Guild.

1. President's Award for Pride of Performance: The President's medal for Pride of Performance is a token of the President's lively interest in the work of writers as well as of scientists, artists, sportsman and others, who may also receive this award. In the field of literature, the award does not go to any particular book or literary achievement, but rather to the life-work of a writer and its contribution to the enrichment of national literature in Bengali or Urdu. The award is made by the President on the recommendation of a Standing Committee and is administered by the Ministry of Education.

Instituted: 1958.
Amount of Award: Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 20,000.
Frequency: Annual.
Languages: Urdu and Bengali:
Date of announcement: Independence day (August 14).

2. Adamjee Prize for Literature:

Instituted: 1960.
Total amount of Prizes: Rs. 25,000.
Languages: Urdu and Bengali.
Scope: Any form of literature.
Frequency: Annual.
Last date of entry: September 30.
Date of announcement: January 31.

3. Dawood Prize for Literature:

Instituted: 1963.
Total amount of prizes: Rs. 25,000.
Number of prizes: Four of Rs. 5,000 each and other smaller prizes
Languages: Urdu and Bengali.
Scope: literary research and criticism; research work on some aspect of the Pakistan movement; interlingual translations.
Last Date of Entry: May 31 of each year.
Date of announcement of awards: August 14 (Independence Day).

4. National Bank of Pakistan Prize for Literature:

Instituted: 1964.
Total amount of Award: Rs. 25,000.
Number of prizes: Two in Urdu, two in Bengali and one in English.
Languages: Urdu, Bengali and English
Scope: Books on scientific, technical and professional subjects.
Frequency: Annual.
Last Date of Entry: October 31.
Date of announcement of awards: January 31 (Birth Anniversary of the Guild).

5. United Bank Prize for Literature:

Instituted: 1966.
Total amount of Award: Rs. 20,000.
Number of prizes: Two of Rs. 5,000 each in Urdu and two of Rs. 5,000 each in Bengali.
Languages: Urdu and Bengali.
Scope: One category for any original writings that stimulate patriotism among children of up to 15 years of age, and another for any original writings that inspire creative urges and aesthetic sensibilities in children.
Frequency: Annual.
Last date of entry: September 30 (Book must have been published the same Year between October and September.)
Date of announcement of awards: January 31. (The anniversary of the Guild.)

6. Guild Awards For Regional Literatures:

Instituted: 1961.
Total amount of awards: Rs. 4,000.
Languages: Panjabi, Pushto, Sindhi, Gujrati.
Scope: All original creative writing.
Frequency of awards: Annual.
Date of announcement of awards: January 31. (Birth anniversary of the Guild.)

7. Unesco Awards on Books for New Readers:

Instituted: 1958.
Amount of prize: Six Prizes worth $400 each (Three for Bengali books and three for Urdu books).
Languages: Urdu and Bengali.
Scope: Simple science; international understanding & social development; teaching useful crafts).
Frequency: Bi-annual.

8. Bengali Academy Literary Awards:

Instituted: 1959.
Amount of Awards: Rs. 12,000: Six prizes of Rs. 2,000 each.
Frequency: Annual.
Language: Bengali.
Scope: Essay and research, novel, short story, drama, poetry, and books for children.

9. Bureau of National Reconstruction (East Pakistan) Awards:

Instituted: 1961.
Total amount of Prizes: Rs. 6,500.
Number of prizes: Four.
Language: Bengali.
Scope: Three prizes for drama and two for juvenile biography.
Frequency: Annual.
Date of last entry: of books and of the announcement of the awards are published through newspapers and other media of publicity.

10. Majlis-e-Taraqqi-e-Adab Awards:

Instituted: 1958.
Amount of Awards: Subject to the decision of the Board of Directors.
Language: Urdu.
Scope: Varying fields of literature are selected in different years.
Frequency: Annual.
Last date of entry: As announced each year by the Majlis.
Date of announcement of Awards: Subject to the decision of the Majlis.

11. Punjab Advisory Board for Books Prizes:

Instituted: 1955.
Amount of prizes: Rs. 2,000.
Language: Urdu.
Scope: Educational books on popular science, history, biography, travel.
Frequency: Annual.
Last date of entry: As announced by the Board every year.
Date of announcement of prizes: Subject to the decision of the board.

12. Bureau of National Reconstruction (West Pakistan) Awards :

Instituted: 1961.
Amount of Awards: Rs. 3000 as follows:

Short Story	—	Rs. 1000.
One-act Play	—	Rs. 1000.
Skit	—	Rs. 1000.

Language: Urdu.
Frequency: Not fixed.

13. Prizes on Manuscripts for Juveniles:

Instituted: 1963.
Total amount of Prizes: Rs. 2,500.
Number of prizes: Six.
Frequency: Determined from year to year.
Language: Urdu.

14. Book Production Awards of National Book Centre of Pakistan:

Instituted: 1962.
Total amount of Awards: Rs. 8000.
Number of prizes: Twelve.
Frequency: Annual.
Language: Urdu and Bengali.
Scope: for publishers exellence of production, and for artists, art work and illustrations.
Last date of entry: January 10.
Date of Announcement of Awards: April.

Graphic Arts

WHILE THE nation as a whole was pursuing, with single-minded determination, its objectives of economic development in the middle of the Third Five-Year Plan, artistic activity was able not only to survive but to flourish.

The rank of practising artists continued to be reinforced with eager new entrants coming from the East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts, Dacca, National College of Art at Lahore, and Fine Arts Department of the Panjab University. Karachi so far has no full-fledged Government-sponsored art college awarding a degree, but the irrepressible love of art found in the great metropolis has led to the setting up of one public-sponsored and at least two good private art institutes, namely, the Central Art Institute run by Pakistan Arts Council, the Karachi School of Art in Nazimabad and the Institute of Art and Design run by the veteran artist, Sheikh Ahmad.

The need to meet the demand of amateurs for professional guidance has led to the setting up of an evening Art Academy on the pleasant green premises of the Arts Council at Lahore also. Again, clients are turning to talented students for the satisfaction of their requirements of art pieces when they find the professionals sometimes beyond their reach or not keen to work according to specifications. Thus, the students of the Lahore Arts College were able to secure a very large order for a series of landscapes of Pakistan ordered by a chain of hotels, just as the students of the Karachi Arts Council Institute manage to sell enough work to pay for their keep.

First, there is the need of aspiring artists for education, fulfilled by the arts colleges and institutes. To meet the



A painting by Chughtai.



increasing requirements of art education, the old art institutes have constantly expanded, and new ones have come into being.

Secondly, there is the need of the creative artist for venues to present his work to the public in the form of periodic exhibitions. Finally, there is the need of the art loving public for points of contact with the artists and their work, not only on the occasion of exhibitions but all the time.

There was a time soon after Independence when there were hardly any places for the artists to exhibit their work except the YMCA's. Now there are Arts Councils functioning in Karachi, Lahore and Dacca in fairly good buildings with facilities for exhibition. In Rawalpindi, there is the Art Gallery of the Society of Contemporary Art. Private art galleries have also been set up to answer the need for contact. All have been very active in holding exhibitions of artists, both one man shows and combined shows.

Thus in 1967-68, the Rawalpindi Art Gallery held exhibitions of Mubinul Azim, Aminul Islam, Murtaza Bashir, Sixth Anniversary Exhibition, Karachi Artists, and Contemporary Australian Artists.

The Pakistan Arts Council of Lahore arranged displays of the work of Shaikh Safdar, Perveen Taher, Masood Kohari, Kamil Khan Mumtaz, Abdul Vahid, Raheel Mian Javed, Shemza, Murtaza Bashir, Anwar Sajjad, Ali Imam, and Aijazul Hasan.

The Karachi Arts Council held exhibitions of A. B. Nazir, Jamil Naqsh, Ali Imam, Ivan Kurash, K. G. Mustafa, A. J. Shemza, Mohammad Jamil, Musarrat Mirza, Paintings of the Indo-Pakistan War by foreign and Pakistani artists and the Annual Exhibition of Karachi Artists.

The Arts Council of Dacca presented the work of Jahangir, Aminul Islam, Rauf and Shamsul Islam Nizami. Murtaza Bashir exhibited at his own private art gallery, the Arts Ensemble, and Qamrul Hasan also held a major one-man show there.

A notable feature of the art functions held in Karachi and Lahore is the frequent exhibition of original foreign paintings and other works of art. Thus, the Karachi Arts Council held exhibitions of Chinese, German, Yugoslav, Japanese and Australian art during this period.

The holding of the Craft Show at Karachi by the National Craft Centre, for the fifth successive year, was not only a big event for the crafts and craftsmen, but it also showed that the artistic base of our culture on which the artists were raising their edifice of fine art, was broad and deep.

The Anniversary Exhibition of The Art Gallery of the Society of Contemporary Art, which is supported and patronized by the Government, was a major event in the world of art.

Murals: The demand for paintings has increased greatly among both private buyers and public bodies. While an increasing number of advertising agencies are providing opportunities for artists to earn a decent living, banks and corporations, hotels,



A section of Sadequain's 170 foot mural for Mangla.

clubs and libraries are extending them opportunities to display their creative talents in the form of murals or large easel paintings.

Some of the important commissions executed during the year were the abstract mural painted by Gulgee in the Sind Club of Karachi, by Jamil in the Karachi Port Trust, by Hamidur Rahman in the United Bank Office at the Hotel Intercontinental in Dacca, and by Murtaza Bashir at the Habib Bank building in Dacca.

Sadequain at Mangla: The most outstanding work of this type, however, was the prodigious mural painted by Sadequain at the newly-completed Mangla Dam. It is a work of gigantic dimensions, measuring 170 by 23 feet. Sadequain has used the imagery of traditional myths and legends, beginning with the story of Shireen and Farhaad — the great lover who dug a canal in the rocky mountains to fulfil the wish of his beloved Shireen. The artist then develops the theme of man's progress, showing him reaching for the stars in his conquest of nature. Noteworthy is the heroic and monumental quality of his figures. Not only are they large in size, but they are brought forward right in front of the picture plane and made to loom large by perspectives of contrast with small objects.

Sadequain is now being commissioned to paint a mural in the Punjab Public Library at Lahore.

Gulgee's Sketches: An important event of the year which provides additional evidence of the increasing demand for artists was the inclusion of artist Gulgee in the *entourage* of the President when he went to meet President de Gaulle in Paris late in 1967, and later visited some East European capitals.

Portraits: Portrait painting had never lacked its votaries in Pakistan, one of the finest of whom is Gulgee, whose recent portraits of President Ayub Khan are in a class of their own. Then

there are veteran painters like Prof. Askari of Karachi, who has painted numerous portraits of the Quaid-i-Azam, and during this year painted a life-size portrait of the poet Iqbal. The artist Sajjad, who was formerly Curator of the Art Gallery at Aligarh Muslim University, also painted some large extremely lifelike portraits. In Lahore, Saeed Akhtari and even more so, the mature and masterly Khalid Iqbal, both of the National College of Art at Lahore, have been painting a large number of portraits and have, in fact, set a style of their own for a certain type of full figure portrait. They painted sensitively in a low key, using blues and greys and yellow, that impart a silver tonality to the picture, very different from the rich browns and reds and dark effects of Askari.

Realistic Painting: Similarly, there is no lack of realistic painting, though most of this is done by the younger painters and amateurs. The elder and the maturer artists are being drawn to abstract or semi--abstract work.

A number of exhibitions of delightful realistic work were held, such as that of Ghulam Mustafa at the Karachi Arts Council, showing scenes in and around Karachi. Many more were held at the Fine Arts Department of the Panjab University, which remains a stronghold of naturalist and figurative art, though the approach is not photographic realism, but imaginative and sometimes inspired.

Thus, the work of Ghulam Rasul, who works in the Fine Arts Department at Lahore, was displayed at the Department and later in Karachi. It consisted of a number of charming landscapes of rural scenes of the Panjab countryside. The treatment was such that the features of the landscape became integral parts of an abstract composition. The beauty of the rich green colours was brought out by emphasizing and exploiting it almost independently of any representational motive. Zulqarnain Haider, of the same department, also exhibited his work there.

War Paintings: A historical reflection of the times is provided by the paintings Zulqarnain Haider made on the Kashmir front, particularly at Chamb, soon after the Indo-Pakistan War of 1965. This war was such a tremendous experience in the national life that it was bound to be reflected in artistic activity. The Inter-Services Public Relations Directorate extended facilities to artists to visit the forward areas. War paintings were made, among others, by Khalid Latif, Mahmud Rumi, Mannan Azmi, Iqbal Ahmad, Mahmud Janjua and Sharef Saleem. Sadequain's sketches and Zubi's paintings on the subject are worth mentioning. An exhibition of war paintings was held at the Lahore Arts Council late in 1966 and then at the Karachi Arts Council early in 1967

Documentaries: Six documentary films were made by Ajay Kardar for a private company, presenting some of the leading artists of Pakistan, including Chughtai, Sadequain, and Zainul Abedin. One of the films used the paintings made for the Pakistan Air Force to make a very lively, animated and forceful picture of the achievements of the PAF during the War.

Print Making: A notable event during

the year was the holding of a Print Making Workshop in Karachi under the guidance of a leading print maker, Mr. Ponce de Leon. Etching, engraving, aquatint, mezzotint and numerous other forms of graphic art were practically unknown in West Pakistan, though Sheikh Ahmad had done some etching and Chughtai makes many etchings of his drawings. In East Pakistan, Safiuddin and Kibria are distinguished practitioners but they all depend primarily on drawing and painting; they do not fully exploit the possibilities of the medium — the impressions produced by the textures and surfaces of different types of material and differently treated surfaces of material. This new and exciting way of making prints has aroused a great deal of interest among a large group of young artists. Half a dozen exhibitions of original prints were brought to Pakistan during the last year from Yugoslavia, Germany, USA and Japan.

In the exhibition held recently, some beautiful prints were produced by Saeed Akhtar, Shahid Sajjad, Naz Ikramullah, Gulgee and Bashir Mirza.

Kohari's Ceramics: Another very important development was the Ceramics Exhibition of Kohari held first at Rawalpindi, then at Lahore, and, the biggest of all, in Karachi. Ceramics in the form of village pottery, both glazed and painted, was being produced at Hala, Multan, Khairpur, Lahore, Gujrat and Peshawar, but it was not raised to the level of a fine art because none of our artists had turned his attention to it. There are Departments of Ceramics at the Art Colleges of Dacca and Lahore, but they too have not been able to create a sizeable body of work which could be presented as a major exhibition.

Young Kohari was the first painter in Pakistan to devote himself fully to the study and practice of this fascinating art. In a year and a half, he had made enough tiles, vases, jars and other ceramic pieces to be able to put up exhibitions. His work was decorated with drawing, surface modelling, or painting, and thus combined ceramics and the art of the painter and sculptor. No one before had made use of so many colours in ceramics, such fine glazes and textural effects, and such sculptural modelling.

One-man Exhibitions: Major exhibitions of the year were those of Safdar and Shakir in Lahore; Jamil, Jamil Naqsh, Mobinul Azim and Shemza at Karachi; Ali Imam at Lahore and Karachi; Murtaza Bashir and Aminul Islam at Dacca.

Ali Imam had been away from the country for 10 years. It was quite an event when this talented artist returned and after a while held an exhibition of his work. His was subtle work, showing the contours and lineaments of human figures softly and suggestively delineated in greys and blues and yellow ochre — a play of moving lights and shadows.

The way in which the face and figure was shown to be emerging out of nothingness gave a new character to conventional forms. Within a very small range of tones he was able to give all the emphasis that he wanted. It was very sensitive and very fine art.

Jamil Naqsh continues to paint nude women and pigeons but with less and



Part of a mural painting by Sadequain, State Bank of Pakistan Library, Karachi.

A painting by Saifuddin Ahmed.





A painting by Kibria.



A painting by Zubaida Agha.

A mural painting of Quranic Verses by Shakir Ali, Panjab Public Library, Lahore.



less realism and more feeling and expressionistic freedom. Instead of his pleasant blues and bluish greens, he is using a dark red which gives a mysterious and passionate air to his work.

The exhibition of the landscape artist Jamil was also a major event, as this genre is comparatively neglected, at least in West Pakistan. Jamil's show included scenes from both West and East Pakistan.

The important exhibitions held at Lahore were those of Shakir Ali at the National College of Art, and of Sheikh Safdar at the Arts Council.

Shakir always takes a human or animal figure as his point of departure, and then expands and contrasts, distorts and designs it "nearer to his heart's desire", in accordance with his feelings and aesthetic needs. A classical restraint, a fine balance and economy of means mark his work.

Safdar, on the other hand, creates highly complex and richly colourful harmonies, consisting often of vertical lines crossed with a series of horizontal ones, suggesting windows in a big block of houses, with the enclosed area painted in many colours. Previously, he painted such designs to suggest night scenes in a city block of houses. But now he has also adopted a more free and easy style. The design is no longer so tight and rigid, the lines no longer firm and continuous, but lightly indicated, fading and emerging. Interestingly, some features of landscapes and figures are returning to his canvas, though vaguely and hesitantly, and it is no longer as abstract as in his shows of the last five years.

At the other extreme was the show of Mubinul Azim which contained purely abstract paintings built up with swift strokes of the brush creating whip-lash lines and streaks on the canvas in the form of large curves and arcs, whirls and zig-zag effects in many colours.

In Dacca, two or three other major exhibitions were held, namely, those of Murtaza Bashir, Jahangir and, most important of all, Aminul Islam. Bashir was until recently a figurative painter. Then he proceeded to paint outsize heads whose bare outline was indicated, and that too in a very distorted and exaggerated form. Then he began to divide up the human figure into geometrical areas without sticking to the human proportion, so that the result was an abstract design more than a figure. Now Bashir has abandoned the figure and is painting what he calls 'The Wall', simply textural effects that have a picture area of changing tones and shades of colour, with some abstract but suggestive forms and lines.

Jahangir who began by painting *genre* pictures and scenes and sights of East Pakistan, is now painting purely abstract pictures, which are a riot of colour and impulsive brush work, imparting a highly emotional quality to his painting.

Aminul Islam's exhibition was a fitting climax to the long series of exhibitions of his work that he has held over the course of 14 years, in which his talent has unfolded first in the form of realistic, then semi-abstract and finally purely abstract work.

Folk Arts and Crafts

BEING the home of a succession of diverse civilizations, Pakistan has a rich heritage of folk crafts. Archaeological finds indicate how the culture of bygone ages lives vividly in the crafts still practised by artisans in villages throughout Pakistan.

The handicrafts of a country are the essence of the culture they represent. In any society that takes pride in these crafts, a genuine love of beauty will manifest itself through the creative hands of a craftsman who, with his skill, portrays his hopes and aspirations.

Before the advent of industrialization, these very handicrafts were not only cherished for artistic value, but also valued for their utility. With rapid urbanization, this rich heritage threatens to be lost. However, modern industrial mass-produced articles have helped indirectly to emphasize the simplicity and artisitic value of handicrafts; and such of these as have survived the industrial onslaught have, in recent times, aroused much interest.

Textiles: Exquisite colourful fabrics of silk and cotton have been woven by weavers of the Sub-continent since ancient times. There was hardly any technique or art in this field that was not known to them. Cotton was known as 'Sindhu' by the Babylonians and 'Sindon' by the Greeks, establishing its origin in the 'Sindhu Valley' (Sind).

In spite of modern textile mills, the spinning wheel remains an essential article of a village maid's trousseau and hand-woven cottons (*khaddar*) are still used for daily requirements. These are either block-printed or beautifully embroidered. In the northern part of West Pakistan woollen cloth is also hand-woven.

Although Dacca, in East Pakistan, still produces a range of beautiful cotton and silk textiles, the fine muslin of Dacca, once world famous, has become extinct owing to the machine's severe competition. The most beautiful of Dacca muslins these days is *jamdani*. Intricate designs are woven into muslin by use of a separate shuttle producing the effect of embroidery. Silk and raw silk produced in Rajshahi is of excellent quality.

Sind and Multan are known for their beautiful *khais* (used as bed covers or wraps), *lungi* (used as turbans or sarongs) and *daryai* or *sussi* (striped material either in silk or cotton).

Among the richest handloom products are the brocades. The most prized is *kimkhwab* — the fabric of dreams. It is produced by interweaving silk and gold or silver thread in a rich variety of colours and floral patterns. Lahore, Khairpur and Karachi are known for excellent brocades and silk saris.

Printing and Dyeing: Everywhere in Pakistan, hand-woven cottons are block- or calico-printed in traditional designs and bright colours. Sind is famous for its *bandhanu* — a tie-and-dye process used on *dupattas* and *ghagra* materials. The process of tying is usually done by women. The patterns are geometric arrangements of dots, squares or circles in vivid green, reds, yellow and indigo. Elephants, peacocks and dancing females are some of the other motifs used.

The method of resist printing is freely used all over Pakistan, both with block stamping and brush work. The resist consists of cow or goat dung. The multipurpose *ajrak* in which predominant colours are dark blue and dark maroon with a sprinkling of white, comes in a variety of designs and is the most popular print with the Sindhis. Northern areas of West Pakistan are well known for their calico-printed *lehafs* and *chaddars* which have distinct Persian influences in designs and colours.

Peshawar is the home of *khosi*, a method of printing with wax. Another form of printing, found in Sind, is *khari* or tinsel printing. The process consists of printing the design by means of a wooden block using gum or lac; and before the gum or lac is dry, it is dusted with coloured or silver and gold powder.

Embroidery: Pakistan is the proud possessor of a great variety of styles in embroidery using cotton, silk, wool, gold and silver thread. Embroidery has a distinct tradition in which the design, colour and stitch vary from region to region. Only the gold and silver embroidery — *badla* and *karchoob* — do not exhibit any special regional characteristics.

Embrioidery is the folk art of women. The basic material used is hand-spun and hand-woven cotton. This material is embroidered in fixed patterns and colours, but each piece has its own individuality.

Leather embroidery is a popular medium for decorating horse and camel gear, and shoes. The embroidery is worked on pieces of dyed leather with a hooked needle (*aar*). The thread is introduced from the reverse side producing the chain stitch. It gives a flat yet bold decorative result. Baluchistan

and Sind excel in this field. *Namdas* (felt carpets) are also decorated with this needle. Rawalpindi and its environs specialize in the production of these *namdas*.

Swat is famous for its *kashida* embroidery. The background is usually black with silk floss embroidery in deep pink. *Dori* work, or braid embroidery, is very effectively displayed on *choghas* (long woollen coats). Swati quilt work is now being adapted for ladies' bags and table mats.

Phulkari and *bagh* have their home in Hazara district. Although *phulkari* (flower craft) and *bagh* (garden) designs may have originated from flowers and gardens, the designs are essentially geometric and abstract. The embroidery on *khaddar* with silk floss in darning stitch is worked entirely from the reverse. *Bagh* is the richer of the two, with embroidery covering the entire background and giving the effect of woven tapestry. *Phulkari* shawls have motifs dispersed all over the material, with elaborately designed borders and *pallus*.

Baluch and Sindhi embroidery has a character of its own and is considered to be among the best in the world. Baluch embroidery boasts of 118 different designs, and their *pushk* (shirt), tray covers and caps amply justify this claim. All major tribes have their own designs and most of the stitches are worked from the reverse. Minute mirrors are used as an additional embellishment, but in a more subtle manner than in the embroidery of Sind.

Sindhi embroidery consists of a variety of stitches, repetitive geometric and floral patterns, and motifs using forms of birds or animals. All are incorporated in one piece giving a heavy, rich effect. Though tribal and local influences are responsible for the dominating characteristics, yet some pieces bear distinct traces of Arab, Turkish and Persian influences. Mirrors are incorporated to form part of a definite design. In lower Sind the colours used are more subdued than in upper Sind.

Rallis and Kanthas: Sind is famous for its colourful patchwork quilt called *ralli,* made from old, dyed pieces of cotton cloth. The basic design is a multicoloured check *tukri*. Embroidery in silk, gold and silver thread, beads, shells and tassels is done to ornament a *ralli*. The quality of a *ralli* is judged by the bold design, colour combination, size and neatness of the stitch. Lower and upper Sind prefer a *ralli* worked in different designs of black and white. In central Sind the designs are multicoloured. A distinct type of *ralli* in lower Sind is known as *kanbeeri*. Instead of patchwork, the designs are created by stitching a variety of coloured threads.

Kantha from East Pakistan is a quilting made of layers of discarded saris stitched together, then embroidered with different designs by means of coloured threads pulled from the borders of saris. The motifs are floral, animal and human figures. The common colours used are red, black, yellow and blue. The chief stitches used are darning, satin, loop and, for the outline, stem and split. The *kantha* has many uses but is most popular as a covering.

Carpets: However old the craft of carpet weaving may be, there is

no doubt that the manufacture of pile carpets in the Sub-continent was at its best during the reign of the Emperor Akbar. When he started this industry in Lahore, he introduced Persian weavers, and we still find that the present pile carpets have a distinct Persian influence in their design and colour. The correct term for the woo- colour. The correct term for the woo- llen pile carpet is *ghilim* or *ghaleen*. *Ghilims* are distinguished by their geometric design and rich colours. *Ghaleens* are made of short staple wool; though thicker than the *ghilims*, they are not as soft.

Pakistani wool is particularly suitable for spinning low-count yarn used in carpet weaving. The pile carpet industry in Pakistan, backed by the abundance of skilled workers, suitable yarn, and consumer encouragement, has resulted in a rapid growth of factories around Karachi, Hyderabad, Multan and Lahore.

Before the introduction of pile carpets, *namdas*, *farasis* and cotton *darees* or *shatrangis* were used as floor coverings. Felt or *namdas* of Kashmir, Baluchistan and Swat are made of pressed wool and ornamented by embroidery, applique work or with dyed wool pressed into the ground to form a design. The Baluch women weave a carpet *farasi* with a pile of camel and goat hair, the latter lending a peculiar lustre to the finished product. Designs are geometric and are woven into horizontal bands, mostly on a deep madder ground with the design traced out in orange, brown and ivory white.

Darees and *shatrangis* are pileless cotton fabric with a simple design, either in stripes or check.

Pottery: The potter at his wheel is a common sight in every village of Pakistan. It is always the beauty of form, the perfect line and symmetry which he seeks the most. Ornamentation is subordinate to shape, and decoration is used only to add to the beauty and dignity of form.

The thin clay pottery called *kagazi* (paper thin), the ultimate in the potter's craft, is produced in Bahawalpur. The form is elegant and the lattice design decoration in open cut-work clearly shows the potter's ingenuity.

Unglazed pottery used in everyday life is either left plain or decorated by painting before or after firing, or by pressing a die before complete drying of the article. Sind is famous for painted pottery in which only two colours, black and maroon, are used before firing. Bahawalpur, Rawalpindi and its environs produce colourful painted pottery — the painting being done after firing. Gold and silver paint is used to highlight the design. *Showkhir hanri* a special pot made in Rajshahi, East Pakistan, is used to carry sweets when they are offered as a gift on festive occasions. It is painted with a fish, elephant or floral design in bright yellow, red and blue.

The East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts is doing extensive research on pottery, and they have succeeded in producing excellent glazed and unglazed, decorative and utility articles there. The rich earth colours of black, dark brown and moss green add to the drinking glasses, tea cups, decorative plates and vases which the students of this institute are producing.

The glazed pottery of Pakistan,

which dates back to the thirteenth century has obvious traces of Persian influence, and its use in architectural decoration, such as mosaic and tiles, was an exclusive Muslim contribution to the architecture of the Sub-continent.

Ryer Bazar in Dacca, East Pakistan, is a potters' village. Unfortunately there are very few potters left who are continuing with their trade. Excellent quality glazed pottery with a raised, floral design, again in earth colours, is moulded into tea sets, bowls, jars and plates.

Peshawar pottery is the simplest in form. Deep and light brown, dark and light green are the most popular colours, and the articles are either left plain or decorated with open cut-work design.

Articles of household use, such as tiles for decoration made in Sind and Multan, are very attractive. Floral and geometric designs on these are generally in turquoise, dark blue, light green, brown, yellow and white. Not more than two, or at the most three, colours are ever used in one design. The designs are either painted free hand or the pattern is punched on paper which is laid on the vessel and dusted with pigment, giving a dotted outline of the design. The design is first painted with a whitish slip and then in colour. This raises the design slightly above the level of the field.

Woodwork: The tradition in woodwork, such as furniture, carving, inlay, lac turnery, musical instruments and toys, is a very ancient art. As early as the reign of the Emperor Akbar, palace furniture was characterized by elaborate carving or was mounted or inlaid with gold, jewels or ivory. The wood was always shellacked and polished.

In the Punjab and Frontier regions it is not uncommon to find, even in small villages, carved doors and pillars on which floral designs are delicately chiselled with considerable skill and beauty.

Wooden sculpture of a very high standard is an integral part of the cottage architecture of rural East Pakistan. This sculpture is to be found mainly in cornice brackets, where the head and trunk of an elephant or two arm-in-arm women are common motifs. The bows and sterns of boats are sometimes decorated with artistically carved animal figures. East Pakistan is also the home of craftsmen who make musical instruments of a high standard.

The wood carving of Kashmir is world-famous. Floral designs in engraved or raised work, accurate to the smallest detail, are seen delicately wrought on cigar and jewellery boxes, trays, cabinets, table tops and folding screens. Peshawar excels in the minute and elaborate work of wood carving called *pinjra* work.

Chiniot is known for brass inlay. The designs are bold and have a freedom of execution which is absent from the more or less similar work of the rest of the Punjab. The inlay is not confined to wire but often includes thin plates of metal cut to the required shape. Veneer and marquetry, using buffalo horn, ivory and, more recently, plastic, are also very popular. This craft when applied to boxes, trays and table tops is often mistaken for inlay work.

Different kinds of painted or lacquered wooden toys of Sunargaon, in East Pakistan, depicting animals still retain their charm and form.

True lacquer work, an indigenous craft, should really be called lac turnery. In this, lac is not applied as paint or varnish but by means of heat generated by friction. Ornamenting wood with lac demands intricate and artistic manipulation by the craftsman. Khanot, Hala (Sind), is famous for this craft which has retained its traditional designs. It is used to decorate bedsteads, *pinjos* (cnadels) and *piris* (chairs). Designs here are more colourful, though not as intricate as the finer quality work done in Kashmore, Sind. Jhang and Sargodha districts are also known for lac turnery work. Here, mainly two colours are used, the darker for the base and the light colour etching for the design. Sometimes small mirrors are also used.

Metal Craft: The craftsmen of Pakistan are not only proficient in the working of precious metals, but also use all their skill and ingenuity in the production of articles of daily use in brass and copper.

In the field of handicrafts, brass and copper perhaps offer the widest scope in technique and design.

Enamelling, or application of coloured glaze or enamel inlay to metal, is mainly done by craftsmen of Multan, Karachi and Hyderabad. The designs are first engraved and the enamel is then burnished into this. In Kashmir and some parts of the Punjab, two designs of enamelware in base metals are very popular, namely, the floral rosette and the arabesque style. The latter consists of elongated figures which give the effect of geometrically arranged Arabic inscriptions, but are actually interlaced floral scrolls.

Repoussé work in base metal is practised in the Punjab, Peshawar and Kashmir. In the Punjab area, the designs are in low relief with clean outlines. In Kashmir, elaborate repoussé in low relief is common. There may also be pierced ornamentation in the Persian style. Peshawar metalware is conspicuously arabesque, and the technique is delicately chased, pierced or incised. Copperware is characterized by the absence of lac filling or any other pigment, and the shapes are often reproductions of famous Persian originals.

In East Pakistan, raised decorations are not popular on domestic utensils, and incised designs are adopted. The patterns are floral or geometric, with popular fish and bird motifs. Incising is carried out with a chisel to make the dotted lines form a pattern.

Damascening, as its name suggests, had its home in Damascus. It is the art of encrusting one metal into another in the form of wires, which by undercutting and hammering is thoroughly and beautifully incorporated with the metal that it intends to ornament. It was originally brought to this part of the world by the Emperor Akbar to decorate weapons.

Damascening or *koftgari* in silver is called *bidri*. Today Gujrat and Sialkot are renowned centres of *koftgari*, producing domestic articles, betel boxes, *surahis* and *bookka* bases.

Copper and brass articles, though less intricately engraved, are seen in the kasera bazars, or copper markets, of Peshawar, Quetta, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Karachi.

Jewellery: Jewellery is a traditional symbol of prestige. The man in the village hangs his earnings round his wife's neck, arms and ankles; not as an unsocial, antiquated form of boarding, but as a way of showing his worth.

Folk jewellery is made of silver, and it is found in a wide range and variety in each region of Pakistan. Ornamentation is either raised, chased or applied. Designs are chiefly floral or geometric though animal motifs of fish, lion or elephant heads are also used. The Muslim emblem of crescent and star appears prominently in ear-rings. Chunky and crude in form, folk jewellery is refined in detail.

The jewellery of Chitral, Kaghan and Swat is clearly influenced by Graeco-Roman and Buddhist cultures. The neck ornaments are heavy and have a fringe of silver coins or beads. A single bluestone is generally fixed in the pendent. There is a pronounced absence of stone settings in jewellery of the Frontier.

The folk jewellery of East Pakistan has a somewhat heavy artistic form. Filigree work of a high quality is produced at Dacca.

Jewelry in Sind, Baluchistan and Punjab has a definite family resemblance, though local products retain their regional names. The silver jewellery of the Punjab is identical in design and execution with the gold jewellery of the towns.

In Sind, Bahawalpur and Multan, silver ornaments enamelled in light or dark blue, red, black and yellow are made. The method of enamelling may be described as champleve′ in so far as the enamel is laid in hollows between raised lines of metal. These are, however, produced by hammering the silver plaque into a steel die or *thappa* and not by engraving.

A crude form of *kundan* — setting uncut precious or semi-precious stones in gold or silver so that each gem, irregularly cut and mellow, adds to the lustre of the other — is produced in Sind. This technique is made available to the lower social rung by using bits of glass instead of gems. Colour is added by inserting coloured tinsel under the glass bits.

Basketry and Matting: Date palm, bamboo, wild rushes and wheat stalks growing across the temperate and tropical landscape of the country have helped to rear the craft of basketry and mat weaving.

The *dabbi* (bread basket) of wheat stalk, *chajj* (winnowing fan) of *kana* reeds, and the *rafis* baskets with *jali* or lattice-work designs are the best example of Sind basketry. *Peesh* (dwarf palm leaves) and fibre provide the raw material for *savas* (chappals) and bags from Baluchistan. The methods and materials for ornamenting these articles are as varied as the different ways of weaving. Shells, beads and coloured tassels are used to ornament the baskets of Sind, Baluchistan and the Punjab.

Alizai, in the Kurrum Agency, is a flourishing centre of basketry made from *mazri* grass, which grows wild all the year round. Men and women weave



Baluchi Shirts with colourful embroidery and mirror work.

in their spare time, decorating baskets with tassels and geometric patterns. Only men in Dera Ismail Khan make the famous snake charmers' baskets and caps of *khajur* (date palm), using the traditional colours for decorating. The Hazara district uses *teelis* (stalks of ripe wheat) to weave baskets, dyeing the *teeli* in traditional colours to form the patterns.

The basketry and matting of East Pakistan displays great artistic skill. Cane, bamboo, reeds, *pals* and *bogla* (a special grass) are basic raw materials. The weaving process is as varied as the raw materials, and dyes, cowries and beads are used for ornamentation.

Only the finest young leaves of elephant grass are used to weave the famous *shitalpati* (mats used as bed spreads in summer). Sylhet produces the best raw material and Munshiganj has the best weavers. *Masuland* is also a kind of matting woven in Khulna. The matting is either plain, or dyed leaves are interwoven to form patterns.

The Press

PAKISTAN is well served by a strong press which played a crusading role in the struggle for the creation of the state and later in its consolidation. It now mounts guard over the citizen's liberties and helps, along with the radio and television, to keep him abreast of the fast-changing panorama of our complicated world.

Rapid industrialization and social developments coupled with the spread of education, particularly during the last decade, have revolutionized the character and strength of the Pakistan press. The number, the circulation and revenues of the newspapers have all increased phenomenally.

Since 1959, the number of newspapers and journals has doubled and the circulation of daily newspapers has trebled. As many as 1,796 papers, as against 797, are now being published in Pakistan in the official language, English, in the two national languages, Urdu and Bengali, and also in such regional languages as Pushto, Sindhi and Gujrati.

A noticeable feature of this development is the growth in circulation and influence of the English language newspapers. Today there are 14 English language daily newspapers in the country. English newspapers are the only newspapers in Pakistan that circulate in both East and West Pakistan.

There is a historical reason for the existence and the continued expansion of English newspapers in Pakistan. During British rule, English was not only the official language and the medium of instruction for post-primary education, but also a widely adopted means of communication between the

educated, especially when their own mother tongues were different. In addition, knowledge and use of it was also a status symbol. Today English remains an official language and an important medium of instruction in higher education; furthermore, it is a useful link language between the two zones of the country and an essential world contact language for Pakistan.

The development of the English language press, however, has not been at the expense of national language papers. In fact, the most spectacular feature of the press in Pakistan has been the fast expansion of the Urdu and Bengali press.

Even though handicapped by the fact that Urdu newspapers are written laboriously by hand, not set by machines, the rise in their circulation has been rapid. *Jang* (Karachi and Rawalpindi) has a circulation of over 158,500.

At first the Muslim share in undivided India's press was small. A few papers like *The Comrade* (Calcutta), the *Al-Hilal* (Calcutta) and *Al-Jamiat* (Delhi), *Zamindar* (Lahore) blazed a new trail in British-Indian journalism and politics.

It was only when the Muslims of the Sub-continent organized themselves around the political platform of the All-India Muslim League, led by Quaid-i-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah, in the thirties that the need was urgently felt for a strong Muslim press to support the Muslim cause.

This led to the establishment of a number of Muslim-owned papers. They were: *Azad*, a Bengali daily (Calcutta, 1936); *The Star of India*, an English language eveninger (Calcutta); *Morning News*, the first Muslim-owned English language daily newspaper (Calcutta August 1, 1942); *Dawn*, an English language weekly (Delhi 1942) later turned into a daily (1943); *The Pakistan Times*, an English daily (1946, Lahore), and *Nawa-i-Waqt*, an Urdu daily (Lahore).

Though hampered by financial difficulties, these papers were wedded to a cause — the cause of Pakistan, and their readership expanded immediately. On the eve of Independence, however, leaving aside *The Pakistan Times* and *Nawa-i-Waqt*, there was no major Muslim-owned newspaper or periodical in the areas constituting the new state of Pakistan.

The Hindu press (*The Tribune* of Lahore) migrated to India. There was a migration, though on a small scale, of Muslim journals from India to Pakistan. Among them were the English daily, *Dawn*, which started publication from Karachi on the day Pakistan emerged as an independent state, and the Urdu dailies *Jang* and *Anjam*, which transferred their offices from Delhi to Karachi.

In East Pakistan, the English language daily, *Morning News*, published from Calcutta re-emerged from Dacca first as a weekly (April 1948) and then as a daily (December 25, 1949). The *Azad* was also shifted from Calcutta to Dacca. A new English daily, *Pakistan Observer*, was started from Dacca.

The newspapers started in the early

years of Pakistan shared in the heart-break and the difficulties the new state itself was encountering. Good printing presses did not exist. Few newspapers had their own plants. Acute shortage of such essential materials and equipment as ink, newsprint, block-making plants and linotype machines and spare parts dogged every stage of newspaper production. A new government, still in its swaddling clothes and called upon to answer calls for help from other sectors of the economy, could not release adequate resources to equip its press.

It is a tribute to the dedication and ingenuity of the pioneers of the Pakistan press that these obstacles, instead of overwhelming, spurred them on to greater effort.

There were casualties by the wayside, however. The English language *Sind Observer* closed down in 1952, as did the *Civil & Military Gazette*, Karachi edition, in 1953 and the *Civil & Military Gazette*, Lahore edition, in 1963. The English language daily, *The Times of Karachi* incorporating the eveninger, *Evening Times*, folded after eight years of struggle. So did the *Pakistan Standard*, the official English language daily of the ruling Pakistan Muslim League party, within a year of its birth. The Urdu language *Anjam* was incorporated with *Mashriq* in 1966.

Despite these setbacks, progress has been steady. Circulations have jumped as have advertisement revenues. Many newspapers are now equipped with their own high-speed, multicolour rotary presses. The papers are better produced, show greater professional competence and have greater range and depth in the coverage of national and international affairs.

Principal Dailies: The Press Information Department of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting lists over a hundred dailies published in 1965, most of them in Urdu followed by English, Bengali, Sindhi, Gujrati and Pushto. The leading metropolitan dailies are:

Urdu

Jang
Mashriq
Imroze
Kohistan
Nawa-i-Waqt
Hurriyat

English

The Pakistan Times
Morning News
Dawn
The Pakistan Observer

Bengali

Dainik Pakistan
Azad
Paigham

Among the regional papers, the better known are:

The Indus Times, Hyderabad
The Khyber Mail, Peshawar
Unity, Chittagong

Further, there are two financial daily papers in English. The *Business Recorder* and *Business Post*, both published from Karachi. The *Daily Business Report*, in Urdu, is published simultaneously from Lyallpur and Lahore.

Periodicals: The periodical press of Pakistan consists of weeklies, fortnightlies, monthlies and quarterlies.

The monthlies are mostly literary and cultural; weeklies usually carry a strong political bias. Specialized periodicals cater to trade and industry, film, women, children, economics, engineering, science, medicine, etc. There are, in addition, house journals published by some of the leading corporations and companies.

Ownership: All newspapers and journals in Pakistan are privately owned by individuals or joint stock companies. Only one newspaper — the Urdu daily *Kohistan* — published simultaneously from Rawalpindi, Multan and Lahore is owned by a political party: the Pakistan Muslim League.

An event of special interest to the press in a developing country was the formation of the National Press Trust in 1964. A non-profit organization, the Trust was formed by private individuals and businessmen to run newspapers on healthy, independent lines, free from private pressures. Patterned on the lines of the trust that operated *The Times*, London, before its recent sale, the National Press Trust's charter seeks to raise the standard of journalism in the country.

The National Press Trust has a full-time Chairman and a board of trustees drawn from the academic, financial and business world. The Trust owns 12 newspapers in English, Urdu and Bengali in six important cities of East and West Pakistan. These are :
Morning News, Karachi and Dacca,
The Pakistan Times, Lahore and Rawalpindi,
Imroze, Lahore and Multan,
Mashriq, Lahore, Peshwar and Karachi,
Dainik Pakistan, Dacca,
Akhbar-e-Khawateen, weekly, Karachi, and
Sports Times, weekly, Lahore.

Other important groups owning more than one publication are:

(i) Pakistan Herald Publications Ltd: *Dawn*, English daily; *Dawn, Gujrati*; *Vatan*, Gujrati eveninger; *Evening Star*, English eveninger; *The Illustrated Weekly of Pakistan*; *Eastern Film*, monthly; *Hurriyat*, an Urdu daily; — all from Karachi.

(ii) Nawa-i-Waqt Ltd: *Nawa-i-Waqt*, Urdu daily, from Lahore and Rawalpindi; *Qandeel*, Urdu weekly, from Lahore.

(iii) Millat Group: *Millat*, Gujrati daily; *Leader*, English eveninger — all from Karachi.

(iv) Jang Group: *Jang*, Urdu daily, Karachi and Rawalpindi; *Daily News*, English eveninger; *Akhbar-e-Jehan*, Urdu weekly, Karachi.

(v) Pakistan Observer Group: *The Pakistan Observer*, English daily; *Chitrali*, Bengali and Urdu film weekly; *Purbadesh*, Bengali weekly — all from Dacca.

(vi) Unity Publications Ltd: *Unity*, English daily; *Insaf* Bengali daily; *Mashriq*, Urdu fortnightly — all from Chittagong.

(vii) Chronicle Group: *The Chronicle*, English daily; *Buniyad*, Bengali daily —both from Chittagong.

Character: The press in Pakistan inherited a strong political character. It fought a long battle for Pakistan's creation against much better-equipped organs owned by the British and the Hindus. Among its own people, it had to strive to sustain a high degree of political consciousness. Inevitably, therefore, the Pakistan press had, even before the independence of Pakistan, become extremely political.

Lately, however, there has been a definite trend towards prominent coverage of development activities. This is inevitable in a society going through a massive transformation in its economic and social life.

The English language press, despite restricted readership, continues to be very influential. The morning dailies are sober in their treatment of news and give a fairly extensive coverage in home and foreign affairs. In fact, English language papers in Pakistan carry a greater proportion of foreign news than do many American or British newspapers.

Many of these newspapers have arrangements with syndicated columns and features of foreign newspapers, which provide comment from front-rank British and American journalists on events around the world.

In Urdu and Bengali papers, the accent is on home affairs. Less space is given to sports or financial news. The evening dailies, English as well as Urdu, constitute, in a limited way, the tabloid press.

A field in which progress has been slow is weekly journalism. But two new ventures, both in Urdu and both from Karachi, the *Akhbar-e-Khawateen*, owned by the Press Trust and *Akhbar-e-Jehan* owned by *Jang*, are promising.

In English monthly journalism, two glossy women's magazines edited by women are *Women's World* and *Charm*. *She* printed on newsprint is a popular weekly.

News Agencies: The Pakistan press is fed by three Pakistan news agencies: (1) The Associated Press of Pakistan (APP), (2) The Pakistan Press International (PPI) and (3) The United Press of Pakistan (UPP).

APP: The Associated Press of Pakistan supplies national and foreign news to 52 newspapers, Radio Pakistan, television stations at Lahore, Dacca, Karachi and Rawalpindi; 24 commercial subscribers; and to various offices of the Central and Provincial Governments. It maintains its central editorial desk at Karachi, bureaux at Rawalpindi, Lahore, Dacca, Chittagong, Peshawar, Lyallpur, Multan, Bahawalpur, Sukkur, Hyderabad and Quetta, and stringers in other important towns of the country.

For foreign coverage, APP has entered into agreements for exchange of news, features and photographs with the following foreign news agencies:
(i) Reuter (London)
(ii) Associated Press of America (New York)
(iii) New China News Anency (Peking)
(iv) Tass (Moscow)
(v) APN (Moscow)
(vi) Antara (Djakarta)
(vii) Pars (Tehran)
(viii) Anatolia (Ankara)

(ix) Kyodo (Tokyo)
(x) Mena (Cairo)
(xi) Ager Press (Rumania)

APP's foreign news service is supplemented by despatches from its own full-time correspondents based in London, Kathmandu and (before the 1965 war with India) New Delhi, and stringers in Bangkok and Ottawa.

On an average, APP puts out between 40,000 and 50,000 words a day over its teleprinter network linking its bureaux and subscribers. The news agency employs about 60 journalists for editing and reporting, and about 100 teleprinter operators and mechanics for the reception and distribution of news.

The average daily wordage from Pakistan to foreign news agencies allied to APP has increased from about 1,000 (1963) to 5,000 (1967).

In 1963, APP had only two representatives of foreign news agencies (Reuter and APA) working from its news files in Pakistan. This number has now increased to 12, eight of them foreigners and four Pakistanis representing foreign news agencies.

The increase in the foreign correspondents has come largely as a result of APP's news exchange agreements with Tass, New China News Agency and Antara, whose correspondents are now posted in Pakistan. APP cables news of special interest directly to Pars (Iran), Anatolia (Turkey), Ager Press (Rumania) and Kyodo (Japan).

PPI: Pakistan Press International, till recently known as Pakistan Press Association (PPA), was established 11 years ago, as a private joint stock company.

The agency circulates, on an average, about 40,000 words daily of home and foreign news, on two separate circuits —one for the national and the other for foreign news. All newspapers, radio and television stations and many commercial houses subscribe to PPI services. The agency has bureaux in all important towns of the country and a network of correspondents and stringers in other places.

PPI's home service consists mainly of political, economic, agricultural, educational, industrial, commercial, social and cultural news.

For foreign coverage, PPI is linked with the following news agencies:

(i) AFP (France)
(ii) DPA (West Germany)
(iii) ANSA (Italy)
(iv) CETEKA (Czechoslovakia)
(v) TANJUG (Yugoslavia)
(vi) Jiji Press (Japan)
(vii) MTI (Hungary)
(viii) PAP (Poland)
(ix) CAF (Poland)
(xi) MEM (UAR)
(xi) BTA (Bulgaria)
(xii) BERNAMA (Malaysia)

It also has stringers abroad. To cover important events in Pakistan for its allied foreign agencies, PPI supplies its service by telex.

PPI supplies news papers with feature articles covering a wide range of subjects, and its photo service feeds newspapers and television networks in the country.

UPP: Founded in 1949, the United Press of Pakistan works on a hand-delivery system.

Foreign Services: Some newspapers subscribe to foreign feature services such as that of *The Observer*, London, and *The New York Herald Tribune*.

All major foreign news agencies, such as Reuters, UPI, AFP, Tass, NCNA and Star have correspondents in Pakistan. A few foreign papers — *New York Times, The Times* (London), *Globe and Mail* (Toronto), *Daily Telegraph* (London), and the American magazines, *Time*, *Newsweek* and *Life* have correspondents or stringers in Pakistan.

Press Organizations: There are three main press organizations in the country:

The newspaper owners' body: The All Pakistan Newspaper Society (APNS);

The editors' body: The Council of P kistan Newspaper Editors (CPNE);

The Pakistan Federal Union of Journalists (PFUJ).

There are local unions of journalists in Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi, Hyderabad, Quetta and Chittagong. Press clubs have been established in almost all big cities and towns.

Working Conditions: The working conditions of journalists remained unsatisfactory for a long time. Salaries were meagre, other facilities negligible and there was no security of service.

On the recommendation of the Pakistan Press Commission (1960) appointed by the Government to look into the state of the newspaper industry and the working conditions of journalists, President Ayub's Government promulgated the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) Ordinance on April 27, 1960.

The law provided for a series of benefits for journalists. Compulsory provident funds were instituted, the working week was fixed at 42 hours, employers were required to give two months' notice (or two months' pay in lieu thereof) if they wanted to terminate the services of a journalist of three or more years' standing. Other benefits included privilege leave on full pay for one month in a year, medical leave on half pay and casul leave.

To facilitate the settlement of disputes between journalists and the management, the Ordinance provides for adjudication by industrial courts. Any establishment employing 20 or more journalists comes within the jurisdiction of the industrial courts.

In accordance with the provisions of the Ordinance, a Wage Board was set up which fixed scales of pay for different categories of newspaper workers. It recommended: (i) abolition of the distinction between English and other language papers in the matter of wages of working journalists; (ii) 'fringe benefits' for journalists, such as dearness allowance, conveyance allowance, charge allowance, night shift or transport allowance, entertainment allowance and outfit allowance, depending upon the duties performed; (iii) payment to apprentices; (iv) payment of gratuity in the event of dismissal after three years of continuous service, or of retirement after 25 years of service, or of death, and (v) entitlement to

medical expenses. An amendment to the Ordinance makes the dependents of journalists also eligible for free medical treatment.

All newspaper establishments are bound by the Wage Board Award.

Training: To meet the increasing demand for trained journalists by newspapers, radio and television, classes in journalism were started in the universities. The Panjab and Karachi universities have post-graduate degree courses in journalism, and the Dacca University offers a one-year diploma course.

The recently organized Pakistan Press Foundation, a private, non-profit organization proposes to sponsor a Pakistan Press Institute, which will run three schools — one each for journalism, photography and printing.

The Government, on its part, has also decided to set up a training institute at Islamabad to impart training to journalists as well as to personnel in the Government's own Information Department.

Government and Press: The Pakistan press plays a crucial role in the task of national reconstruction. The area of press freedom has been widened and the Government's endeavour has been to put newspapers on a more solid economic footing to enable them to discharge their role more effectively. Action against newspapers by the Government has been rare. The possibilities of interference with the day-to-day working of the press have been minimized by setting up a self-regulating machinery within the press itself.

Freedom of the Press: Freedom of expression is one of the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution of Pakistan.

Article 6(FR) of the Constitution lays down that "Every citizen shall have the right to freedom of speech and expression, subject to any reasonable restrictions imposed by law in the interest of the security of Pakistan, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, or in relation to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence."

The question whether the restrictions imposed on the exercise of this right are reasonable or not is justiciable; and where the restrictions are not reasonable, the court may so decide against the administrative action of the authorties or the legislative measure, as the case may be.

In a recent case which attracted considerable attention, a District Magistrate refused to authenticate the declaration for a daily newspaper (*Sangbad*, Dacca) on certain grounds. The High Court found the action of the District Magistrate unreasonable. The administrative authorities forthwith took action to implement the verdict of the High Court, and the newspaper concerned is being published regularly.

The press laws enacted before the amendment of the Constitution, incorportating fundamental rights, have since been amended and brought into consonance with the constitutional provision guaranteeing the fundamental right of freedom of expression.

Code of Ethics: In pursuance of his belief in this right the President undertook in his election manifesto "to work out a code of press ethics to let it regulate its own conduct".

Within seven months of the President's undertaking, the Code of Press Ethics was not only evolved but put into effect. It was yet another solid proof of the country's faith in the freedom of the press. At the same time, it symbolized the confidence the Government reposed in the press. The Government of Pakistan in a gentleman's agreement announced a moratorium on special press laws, leaving the press free to regulate its conduct through its own Court of Honour.

It was an unprecedented event in this part of the world. For the first time in Asia, a national press adopted a voluntary code of ethics and set up its own machinery to ensure compliance. The arrangement was hailed all over the world by newspapers as well as by press organizations.

The Chairman of the Commonwealth Press Union (Lord Astor), in a letter to President Ayub Khan, said: "We were delighted to read of the moratorium of the press laws announced by your Government and the establishment of the Press Court of Honour. We feel certain that this imposition of self-control was a wise move to which the Pakistan press will respond to the mutual advantage of the Government, the people of Pakistan and of themselves."

Court of Honour: Under the Code of Ethics, the Press Court of Honour was set up on October 27, 1963. It was organized on the general lines of the Press Council in Britain to enforce the provisions of the Code and to correct its violations. The Court consisted of a retired Judge of the Supreme Court and six editors. The Court started functioning from March 28, 1967.

With the setting up of the Court, pending cases for adjudication before courts of law were withdrawn and fresh cases involving violation of the Press Code were referred to the Court of Honour.

The Court has operated satisfactorily since it came into existence. Only in one solitary case (Bengali daily, *Ittefaq*), where the ordinary processes of law were considered inadequate to meet the situation, were the emergency laws invoked. Challenged in the High Court, this action, was found valid by the Court.

The following were elected to the Press Court on January 21, 1968:

Mr. Justice Amin Ahmed, Chairman
Mr. Majid Nizami,
Mr. Tafazzal Hossain
Mr. Mustafa Hasan,
Mr. Kazi Mohammad Akbar,
Mr. Umar Farooqi,
Mr. S. G. M. Badruddin, Secretary

Committee: At the same time, an agreement between the Government and the press was also reached on the setting up of a Press Consultative Committee comprising representatives of the editors' organization (CPNE) and the Central Government to go into cases where action is contemplated by the Government under the normal laws of the land.

The CPNE nominated the following members to the Committee:

1. Mr. Abdus Salam
2. Mr. Zahur Husain Chowdhury
3. Mr. Jamil Ansari
4. Mr. Khalilur Rahman
5. Khwaja M. Asaf.

Code of Ethics

The revised Code of Ethics adopted by the CPNE reads:

The signatories to this Code of Press Ethics believing that it is necessary to observe a voluntary code of conduct by the Press to ensure its functioning in freedom in the most beneficial manner to society, decide to act in accordance with the Code set forth below:

1. The profession of journalism, which is a public institution, should not be used as an instrument to serve personal or anti-social ends, or interests which are not compatible with this profession, nor should it be used to the detriment of the public interest.

2. The following are to be avoided in any form of publication, such as articles, news items, photographs and advertisements, etc.:

(a) Immorality or obscenity.
(b) The use in articles of vulgar expressions against individuals, institutions or groups.
(c) Belittling exposure of the private lives of individuals, unless such exposure is in the public interest.
(d) Libellous or false allegations against individuals, institutions, groups or by one newspaper against the other.

3. Presentation of news items and comments on events should be fair and objective and there should be no wilful departure from facts.

4. Headlines should not materially distort the content of the news.

5. Off-the-record statements should not be published.

6. The journalist should protect the secrecy of his source and respect confidences placed in him.

7. Embargoes on release dates of news, articles and pictures should be observed.

8. Paid commercial announcements or advertisements in the form of news, articles, pictures, and features should be published in such a way as to leave no doubt that they actually are commercial announcements or advertisements.

9. Justified corrections or denials sent as a result of any incorrect information published by newspapers, periodicals or news agencies should be published within the shortest possible period of time in such a way as thoroughly to eliminate the impression created by the original publication which necessitated the issuance of a correction or denial.

10. The Press shall avoid the publication of news or comments, photographs or advertisements which tend to undermine the security of the state or solidarity of the nation.

11. The Press shall refrain from publishing anything likely to undermine the loyalty and allegiance of any member of the armed forces of Pakistan.

12. The Press shall not publish anything apt to create ill-will between different sections of the people, provided it is not construed to preclude legitimate airing of grievances and views in matters of disparity between regions and groups.

13. The Press shall refrain from publishing anything likely to bring into hatred or contempt the head of any foreign State and shall further refrain

from publishing anything likely to prejudice the maintenance of friendly relations between the Government of Pakistan and the Government of any foreign State, provided it does not infringe on the right of newspapers to publish unslanted news and views.

14. (a) In reporting the proceedings of the National and Provincial Assemblies, such portions of the proceedings as the Speaker may have ordered to be expunged from the records of the Assembly shall not be published, and every effort shall be made to give the readers a fair report of what has been said by all sections of the House.

(b) In reporting proceedings of the courts of law or tribunals, specially the proceedings of trials which have a political significance, care should be taken not to suppress versions or material evidence or arguments presented in the courts of law by either the prosecution or the defence.

15. In dealing with any labour situation, the Press shall restrict itself to factual reporting of events without in any way encouraging or provoking strikes or any other form of disturbance in industrial and other production units, in public utilities and essential services, provided any bonafide comments on industrial relations and working conditions will not come under the mischief of this clause.

(b) In dealing with the student problem, the Press shall not publish anything which may encourage agitational activity among the students, provided it does not infringe on the right of newspapers to publish unslanted news and views on any class of citizens, including students.

16. No newspaper shall accept in any form or shape any financial aid or pecuniary advantage or obligation from or on behalf of any foreign country or concern. This does not apply to paid advertisements appearing as such.

17. The Press shall uphold this Code of Ethics and shall not permit anything to be published against the Code in any of the newspapers signatories to the Code.

Court of Honour: The following arrangements for the implementation of the Press Code of Ethics should be adopted:

1. A Press Court of Honour shall be set up by the Standing Committee of the Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors, comprizing a retired High Court Judge as Chairman, and six members from among themselves; one of whom shall act as Secretary to the Court. Provided that half the members would retire each year, the first retirement will be by drawing lots. The retiring members will not be eligible for re-election before the expiry of 12 calendar months from the date of retirements. A member of the Court will not participate in cases in which his own paper is involved. A representative of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting shall have the right to attend the meetings of the court as an observer.

2. The Secretary shall
(a) Receive complaints in writing from any party that may be aggrieved by an alleged breach of the code by any newspaper which is a signatory to the

Code.

(b) Submit the complaint to the Court and at the instance of the Court ask for a report on the complaint from the editor of the newspaper complained against.

(c) On receipt of such a report, or if no report is received within 30 days, shall convene, under instructions of the Chairman of the Court, a meeting of it at which the representatives of the aggrieved party and the editor concerned shall be invited to be present.

(d) The findings of the Court of Honour on any such complaint shall be issued in the form of a communique which will be obligatory on all signatory newspapers and periodicals to publish. Failure by any signatory to publish such a communique will be deemed a violation of the Code and dealt with accordingly.

3. The Court may warn or condemn the newspaper which is deemed to have contravened the Code, or it may seek to reconcile the parties.

4. In cases where a serious offence is found to have been committed, the Court can ask the competent organization to consider the expulsion of the newspaper from the Press organization to which the newspaper belongs or withdraw its protection from the party concerned.

5. The Chairman of the Court shall have the power to initiate proceedings *suo moto* in connection with any breach of the Code by any signatory.

6. The aggrieved party — whether it be Government or a private individual— will refrain from taking any other action when it has forwarded a complaint to the Press Court of Honour whose findings shall be accepted.

7. These provisions shall be applicable to all newspapers, periodicals and news agencies which become signatories to the Code.

8. Newspapers or periodicals who are not members of the Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors shall also be entitled to become signatories to the Code.

TABLE I

The Press by Periodicity (1965)

Press	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Dailies	102	24	78
Biweeklies	17	6	11
Weeklies	335	78	257
Fortnightlies	156	43	113
Monthlies	654	152	502
Quarterlies	109	27	82
Periodicals, Annuals, etc.	423	193	230
	1,796	523	1,273

Source: Press Information Department

TABLE II

The Press by Language (1965)

Language	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
English	556	108	448
Urdu	720	5	715
Bengali	412	410	2
Arabic	2	..	2
Gujrati	14	..	14
Pushto	21	..	21
Sindhi	60	..	60
Punjabi	1	..	1
Persian	5	..	5
Balochi	5	..	5
	1,796	523	1,273

Source : Press Information Department



A view of the library of the State Bank of Pakistan, Karachi.



A Manipuri dance at the Bulbul Academy, Dacca.

A play being telecast from the Karachi Television Station.



Radio and Television

AT THE TIME of Independence, Pakistan inherited only three broadcasting stations: two 5 kw medium wave stations, at Lahore and Dacca, and one 10 kw medium wave station at Peshawar. They had a comparatively small range and were intended to meet local needs.

The Pakistan Government paid immediate attention to sound broadcasting — a State controlled activity — and the Karachi station began to broadcast on the fi st Independence anniversary, in 1948. It was a modest beginning, using two low-powered transmitters — one short wave and the other medium wave. In 1949, a 10 kw medium wave transmitter was installed at Karachi and a 7.5 kw short wave transmitter at Dacca. The same year a 50 kw short wave station went on the air from Karachi and since then Radio Pakistan has gone a long way on the road to better service to its listeners at home and abroad.

Headed by a Director-General, Radio Pakistan is attached to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. Its regional broadcasting stations include Karachi, Hyderabad, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Peshawar in West Pakistan and Dacca, Chittagong, Rajshahi, Sylhet and Rangpur in East Pakistan.

The current Third Five-Year Plan provides Rs. 90 million (as against Rs. 25 million provided in the First and Rs. 40 million in the Second Plan) for the development of broadcasting. The objective of the Plan is to provide medium range coverage for the whole of Pakistan, a service linking East and West Pakistan, and an effective service for listeners in foreign countries.

The proposals under the Third Plan

will increase the number of transmitting stations to 14, transmitters to 36 and total power to 3,680 kw. from 11 transmitting stations and 26 transmitters with a total power of 760 kw in 1965.

Other targets in the Third Plan include:

— A full-fledged 100 kw medium wave station at Multan.
— Relaying stations of 10 kw each at Khairpur and Khulna.
— One 1,000 kw medium wave station each at Dacca and Islamabad.
— Two 250 kw short wave transmitters to be added to the existing set-up at Islamabad.
— Completion of the broadcasting house at Islamabad and building a new broadcasting house at Peshawar.
— Replacement and improvement of equipment at most stations.
— Expansion of training facilities.
— Construction of separate studios for transcription service at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.
— A central stores department at Chittagong and a laboratory and workshop at Islamabad.
— Distribution of 1,000 listening sets under the Rural Works Programme.

News: Within the country, Radio Pakistan broadcasts news in 7 languages. Six bulletins are broadcast daily in the two national languages, Urdu and Bengali, and two in English. The regional language bulletins comprise: Kashmiri 5, Sindhi 2, Pushto 4 and Baluchi 2. In addition, local news bulletins are broadcast in local and national languages by every station. Radio Pakistan's news gathering is done through its own correspondents and through national and international news agencies. Including newscasts transmitted abroad, Radio Pakistan has increased the number of its news bulletins to 81 per day in 18 languages.

Programmes: A full-fledged station of Radio Pakistan broadcasts programmes of a total duration of about 10 hours every day. In 1968 the total Radio Pakistan broadcasting time amounted to 50,082 hours on shortwave and 42,936 hours on medium wave transmissions in comparison to 24,547 and 24,868 hours respectively in 1958.

These programmes include news, music, skits, features and plays; informative and educative items, such as talks, discussions, news-reels and outside broadcast relays. Educative programmes, news-reels and non-musical entertainment form 50 per cent of the broadcasts. Religious programmes include recitation from the Holy Qur'an with Urdu/Bengali translations and talks, special features on religious occasions and important days such as Pakistan Day and Independence Day, festivals, anniversaries of the Holy Prophet, the Caliphs, saints and the Quaid-i-Azam.

A second channel is available at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca to provide a wider choice of programme to listeners. Programmes are also broadcast for special categories of listeners such as children, students, women, farmers and armed forces. School broadcasts and the university magazine are educative and instructional. Children's

programmes consist of stories, skits, playlets, songs, talks and features of an informative and instructive character. Themes of feminine interest, such as cooking, knitting, child-care and careers for women, are the highlights of the women's programme. Programmes for rural listeners (Basic Democracies Programme) are broadcast from almost every station. These programmes, broadcast for farmers and other classes of rural population, deal with such problems as care of live-stock, use of chemical fertilizer, cottage industries and improved methods of cultivation. The programmes are broadcast in regional languages, and are presented with the active co-operation of the departments of agriculture and the two agricultural universities. Daily composite programmes of special interest to the armed forces are also broadcast.

Music: Music broadcasts, regarded as a universal as well as a very significant expression of the artistic genius of the people by Radio Pakistan, is given approximately half its transmission time. Including commercial and film music, a total of up to 30 hours of music, comprising some 250 items, are broadcast every day. The balance between classical, folk and light music is determined by listener preferences. It includes classical and light music (*qawwalis*, *ghazals* and *geets*), folk music, film songs and commercial-purpose recorded music. The weekly musical roundup *Sab Ras* includes songs on such themes as marriages, harvest time and festivals.

Commercial Service: In 1961, Radio Pakistan started a commercial service to earn revenue by advertising commercial products. The service includes folk song programmes and popular music. This service is available at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.

External Services: Ten external services of Radio Pakistan are broadcast to the UK, East and South East Africa, Burma, Afghanistan, the Arabian Peninsula, South East Asia, South Asia, Indonesia, Iran and Turkey. External broadcasts use 13 languages, including a Swahili language service started two years ago.

Transcription Service: This service provides authentic broadcasting material through research and surveys on various aspects of Pakistan. The service produces programmes in English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Persian, Bengali and Urdu and supplies broadcasting material to 75 countries. Radio Pakistan's music library contains records of theatre music, and of all outstanding musical personalities. Records of about 944 singers, including many no longer living, are preserved in its archives.

Monitoring: The Monitoring Department prepares monitored reports on the latest news and views from important foreign stations. These reports are supplied to the Government of Pakistan.

Radio Pakistan publishes fortnightly and monthly programmes in Bengali, Urdu, English, Arabic, Persian and Burmese. These publications contain extracts from important speeches broadcast from various stations.

Future Plans: A Broadcasting Committee was appointed by the President in 1965 to examine various aspects of

broadcasting and recommend measures for further improvement. The committee issued a detailed questionnaire addressed to people in all walks of life in East and West Pakistan. On the basis of replies to the questionnaire and interviews with a large number of people, the committee submitted its report to the Government in April 1967.

In the year 1967-68, a provision of Rs. 23.5 million was made for completing important projects then in hand. These projects include: setting up a 100 kw short wave transmitter in Dacca and a 10 kw medium wave transmitter in Rangpur. Two 100 kw short wave transmitters have been completed in Islamabad.

Negotiations have been completed for one 1,000 kw MW transmitter and two 100 kw SW transmitters at Islamabad, a 150 kw MW transmitter for Quetta and a 10 kw MW station for Khairpur.

In 1968-69 work on one 1,000 kw MW and an additional 100 kw SW transmitter in Dacca will be continued. The major portion of the Broadcasting House at Islamabad will be completed in 1968-69.

The following radio stations and transmitters are scheduled to be completed during the Third Plan.

	MW	*SW*
Karachi	1 — 10 kw	
Quetta	1 — 150 kw	
Lahore	1 — 10 kw	
Islamabad	1 — 1000 kw	2 — 250 kw 2 — 100 kw
Multan	1 — 100 kw	
Hyderabad	1 — 100 kw	
Khairpur	1 — 10 kw	
Dacca	1 — 1000 kw	1 — 100 kw
Khulna	1 — 10 kw	

After the completion of this expansion programme, the medium wave coverage in West Pakistan will be 70 per cent of the area and 90 per cent of the population, while in East Pakistan the entire province and the off-shore islands will be covered.

TELEVISION

The Government of Pakistan decided to establish a television corporation in Pakistan in 1964. A beginning was made on a modest scale, to operate two pilot TV stations, one each at Lahore and Dacca, and for this purpose the Government entered into an agreement with the Nippon Electric Company of Japan to operate the pilot stations on an experimental basis.

In February 1965, a Television Company with an authorised capital of Rs. 50 million was incorporated to operate the two stations, the Pakistan Government holding a controlling interest. The remaining shareholders are the Nippon Electric Co. of Japan and the Thomson Television (International) Ltd. of England. The Lahore station was inaugurated in November and the Dacca station in December 1964.

In 1967, the Karachi Television station went on the air as the first full-fledged station with latest production facilities including video tape recorders. It provides excellent service within a 50-mile radius.

Television stations have also been set up in Rawalpindi/Islamabad and the pilot stations of Lahore and Dacca have now been converted into full-fledged stations. More stations will be set up at Chittagong and Peshawar during the Third Plan. It is proposed to set up microwave links during the current plan period, and in the Fourth Plan TV stations are to be set up at Rajshahi, Multan, Khulna, Lyallpur, Comilla and Hyderabad.

A Central TV Training Centre has been set up with the help of West Germany at Rawalpindi to train 40 engineers and 40 programme personnel every year. The institute will be permanently located at Islamabad.

Programmes: The TV programmes include the following categories:

— Educative and informative.
— Programmes on development activities.
— Programmes on national integration.
— Entertainment programmes.
— Special programmes for women, children and students.
— Latest news in national languages and English.

The three main stations at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca are full-fledged programme producing centres, whereas the stations at Peshawar, Chittagong, and other places will have limited production facilities providing local colour, and will otherwise relay programmes from the main stations.

The main stations have made a modest start with programmes of 30 to 40 hours a week. Necessary recording, telecine, film producing and editing equipment has been provided. Satellite stations will have limited programme production facilities, and 5 kw transmitters or re-broadcast stations will be placed *en route* wherever possible to extend the coverage. Through this system the television service will become available to large rural areas.

Each major station will require at least 90 persons qualified in the programme and engineering needs of the station. Facilities will be provided at the Central TV Training Centre for specialized courses in floor management, stage, supervision, film editing and routine technical operations.

Films

In 1947, when Pakistan came into being, the film industry had to make a fresh start with only two partially-equipped studios in Lahore and none anywhere else in the country. Progress in the beginning was naturally halting and in 1948 only one film was produced. This figure rose to seven in 1949 and 13 in 1950, but fell again to seven and six in 1951 and 1952, respectively. Thereafter, the industry has been taking bigger and bigger strides.

The position today is that there are 11 studios, about 550 exhibition halls and over 150 distributors in Pakistan. On an average, 200 films are produced every year.

Studios: Of the 11 studios, six are in Lahore, two in Karachi and three in Dacca. Some of these studios are very well equipped and are run on sound business lines. The studio at Dacca is in a category by itself, and is dealt with in a later section of this chapter.

Generally, studios are hired out to producers on the basis of an 8-hour shift at rates ranging from Rs. 450 to Rs. 750.

Producers: There are over 100 active producers in the country. They produce films mainly in three languages, that is, Urdu, Bangla and Punjabi. A few films have also been produced in Sindhi. A picture generally costs from Rs. 200,000 to Rs. 700,000 and takes from six months to a year to complete. Initially it is the producers who finance the film but, towards the end of actual production, distributors cover 50 to 75 per cent of the actual cost. All raw film is imported.

Pakistan has participated in international film festivals held in Berlin, Cannes, Venice, Colombo, Edinburgh and other places and has won a number

of prizes. A Bengali film was awarded the Golden Plaque of Germany and another obtained two citations at the Cannes festival. The Pakistani feature film *Badnam* was highly praised at the Moscow film festival and the Soviet Government purchased the film for dubbing in 23 languages of the Union.

Censorship: Before public exhibition, films are censored. There is a Central Board of Film Censors at Rawalpindi which has branch offices at Lahore and Dacca. Headed by a Chairman, it comprises official and non-official members.

A film may be certified for universal exhibition or it may be passed for adults only, or it may be considered fit for exhibition only after deletion of certain portions. It may even be rejected as entirely unsuitable. In the case of complete rejection, the producer can appeal to a special committee constituted by the Government whose decision is final. The usual grounds for rejection are: infringement of national security or law and order, injuring religious susceptibilities, promoting immorality, obscenity, bestiality or crime, defaming individuals and blackmail.

The Pakistan censorship is liberal and allows full play to creative ideas and artistic expression.

Cinema Halls: Licences for cinema halls are issued by the Government. Requirements of the licence are: suitability of the building for exhibition, observance of municipal laws, avoiding overcrowding and fire precautions. Inspections are carried out from time to time by an inspection team appointed by the Government to ensure that all conditions of the licence are properly complied with.

Taxes: The industry makes a handsome contribution to the State revenues and pays about Rs. 25 million to the Government every year. Four-fifths of this sum comes from box offices and the rest from import duties, sales tax, octroi tax and licensing and inspection fees. Taxes levied on films include entertainment tax, sales tax, import duty and licence fee.

Documentaries: Documentaries are made mainly by the Department of Films and Publications (DFP), which produces news-reels, educational and informative documentaries and films depicting the culture of Pakistan. It has so far produced about 250 news-reels and 200 documentary films. DFP's most ambitious documentary, *Pakistan Story*, was produced in 1966. It presented a panoramic view of the history of the nation.

The department also lends a helping hand to foreign agencies such as the United Nations and UNESCO when films have to be dubbed in Pakistani regional languages, and helps to arrange circulation within the country. The Department also advises and extends guidance and assistance to foreign television, documentary, news-reel and feature film producers.

News-reels and documentaries produced by DFP are released in all the cinema halls of Pakistan every week. The department also sends news-reels and documentaries to over eight countries, including RCD countries where three to four reels are sent every month.

Films made by DFP have received many international awards and cita-

tions. So far, there have been 30 awards and certificates of merit.

As the demand for documentary films is constantly increasing, independent film producers are also being commissioned to make films for the ministries and departments of both the Central and provincial Governments.

Government Assistance: The Pakistan Government has provided maximum facilities for the overall development of the industry. The establishment of the Film Development Corporation at Dacca was an event of great significance to the growth of the industry.

The corporation has taken the initiative in training aspirants in the art of film making. Directors, script writers, technicians, artists, all are required to be trained to first-rate professional standards. Many have been trained in EPFDC studios and some have been sent abroad for further training. In order to improve standards of professional competence, the corporation has set up the Film Institute of Pakistan to provide facilities of theoretical and practical training in the art of film making.

Advisory Council: In March 1967, the Government set up a Central Advisory Council to co-ordinate all matters relating to the film industry, and to promote production of better films, in line with national traditions and ideology.

The council has been given complete powers to deal with the problems of the industry, particularly in the following respects: Provision of raw material, technical equipment and machinery; fixation of tariff rates on raw material and different classes of equipment; provision of incentives, such as awards or exemption from entertainment tax of approved films on national themes; pre-censorship guidance in respect of subjects and themes; policy-making relating to export, import and exhibition of foreign films; film exchange; promotion of film clubs and film festivals; and joint production of films.

The Minister and the Secretary of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting are, respectively, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the council. Other members include representatives of the ministries of Commerce, Industry, and the Board of Revenue.

Film Corporation: The East Pakistan Film Development Corporation was established in 1958 under a provincial Act and has since achieved great success in promoting the film industry of the province.

During these years, the EPFDC has produced 292 films of which 152 were feature films and 140 comprised documentaries and news shorts. Some of these have been widely acclaimed and have been awarded prizes in national and international film festivals.

The corporation has established a film laboratory for black-and-white, colour, and for combined processing of both 35 mm and 16 mm films. There are four shooting floors with a capacity of five sets a day, and two sound theatres for recording, dubbing and re-recording.

Distribution: The distributors have divided Pakistan into three circuits, namely, Karachi, Sind and Baluchistan circuit, Punjab circuit and the East Pakistan circuit. Distribution rights are, therefore, on the basis of these

circuits.

There are about 150 distributing firms in the country and they control the distribution of all films, Pakistan and foreign, meant for commercial screening. Not all of the distributors are Pakistani firms. Some foreign films are distributed by subsidiary offices of American and other foreign companies.

Distributors acquire films on one of these bases: on commission which varies from picture to picture, on lease against advance and minimum, or outright purchase.

Exhibition: There are about 550 cinema halls in the country and many more are under construction. In addition, there are over 30 touring talkies, all of them in West Pakistan. About 8 cinema houses are fitted with 70 mm equipment and in Karachi there is one drive-in cinema.

The cinema halls, among them, have a total seating capacity of over 250,000 and their total playing time comes to 30,000 weeks.

Export: A film export corporation has been established to promote the export of Pakistani films. It has a branch office in London to serve the European market.

An agreement has been reached between film producers of Pakistan and Indonesia for the export of Pakistani films to that country. A similar agreement exists between Afghanistan and Pakistan.

Other markets are also being explored. A film delegation recently toured a number of countries of South East Asia, East Africa and the Middle East, and held talks for bilateral agreements relating to exchange of films.

Pakistani films have good prospects in East Africa, the Sudan, Aden, Bahrain, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, China, Hong Kong, Iran and the UK, and efforts are being made to establish a foothold in these markets.

During the year 1964-65, earnings from export of films totalled Rs. 312,000. In 1965-66, the figure touched Rs. 591,000 and during the past years steady progress has been maintained.

Import: Indian films are not imported as a measure of protection for the national film industry. Otherwise there is no ban on the import of films. Films are being imported for exhibition from USA, USSR, UK, France, Italy, Germany, Japan, UAR, Iran and a number of other countries.

Festivals and Awards: To stimulate the advancement of art and technique of film making and to encourage experiment and research in all branches of the industry, various awards have been instituted.

Festivals are also held in the country from time to time. Generally, the awards are organized by the industry itself and the Government is not associated with them.

Exhibitions of foreign films have also been organized. In 1965, the first exhibition of modern world classics was held at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore. The countries which participated were Ceylon, India, China, France, Iran, Japan, Poland, Turkey and the USSR.

Sports

PAKISTAN came into existence with a rich sporting heritage. Before Independence, Muslims, from areas which were soon to become Pakistan, had played an important part in sports in the Subcontinent. The hockey supremacy of India was due in part to them and the wrestling world had long been astounded by the legendary Gama.

It was against this background that sport was first organized in the new nation. Local federations and associations helped to find and develop sporting talent throughout the country, while a Sports Control Board was formed to look after the affairs of these sporting bodies. Government patronage and help enabled Pakistani sportsmen to compete in the showpieces of modern sport such as the Olympic Games, the Empire Games and the Asian Games, and also to take part in international competition with sportsmen of other nations.

Cricket: Pakistan is the youngest, though by no means the least successful, member of the International Cricket Conference, the organization which confers official Test status. As early as 1951, Pakistan achieved this status by virtue of a victory against a visiting MCC team in an unofficial Test in Karachi. Although Pakistan lost the series against India on the first official tour, the maiden Test victory was recorded at Lucknow. Enthusiasm for the game reached its peak in 1954, when Pakistan, on the first tour of England, won a memorable victory at the Oval and shared the rubber. No other country had ever won a Test on its first visit to England.

A drawn series against India in 1954-55, a victorious home series against New Zealand, and an historic win

against Australia in the only Test in 1956, played at Karachi, kept Pakistan's stock high in the cricketing world. In the 1957-58 tour of the West Indies, Pakistan lost the series three matches to one, but once again achieved the distinction of winning a Test on first visiting a country. It was in this series that Hanif Mohammad played the longest Test innings in cricket history, batting over 16 hours for 337, while Garfield Sobers scored 365 not out to break the Test record.

At home in 1959, Pakistan took their revenge by beating the West Indies 2-1, but in the same year, an Australian team came and won the series decisively 2-0. The decline continued and Pakistan lost to England at home and were beaten on their second official tour in 1962. With Hanif Mohammad elevated to captain, Pakistan's fortunes took a better turn, not a Test was lost for over three years. During this time, Pakistan drew with Australia, both home and away, drew with New Zealand away and beat them at home comfortably, a visiting Ceylonese team was easily outclassed.

Pakistan played host to the first under-25 team ever sent by the MCC and drew all three matches. Pakistan's third visit to England in the summer of 1967 was a qualified success, because, having narrowly failed to win the first Test, Pakistan was beaten in the other two. At the Oval, young Asif Iqbal played a remarkable innings of 146 and shared a Test record partnership of 190 for the ninth wicket with Intikhab Alam.

The Board of Control for Cricket in Pakistan (BCCP) is the official ruling body and it organizes the two major zonal tournaments: the Quaid-i-Azam Trophy and the Ayub Trophy. The BCCP also arranges Pakistan's tours abroad and the tours of Pakistan by other countries.

Hockey: Among team-games, hockey has been the pride of the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent for four decades. During this time, all the Olympic hockey tournaments have been won by either India or Pakistan, and the last three Olympic finals have been contested by these two.

In the 1948 and 1952 Olympics, Pakistan could finish no higher than fourth, behind India, Britain and Holland. A narrow defeat in the finals at Melbourne was followed by a hat-trick of gold medals. First, Pakistan won the 1958 Asian Games at Tokyo on goal averages. Then, she took the Olympic title, at Rome, in 1960 with a single-goal victory, the scorer being Nasir Bunda. Finally, she retained the title at the Asian Games at Djakarta, with a convincing 2-0 victory over India, the traditional rivals.

After these years of triumph, there came a downward trend chiefly because of the retirement in quick succession of a number of experienced and distinguished players. In 1963, Pakistan finished fourth in the Lyons Hockey Festival, behind India, West Germany and Holland. The year after, Pakistan lost the Olympic crown to India at Tokyo, losing by the only goal in a hard-fought even match.

In 1965, at the Hamburg Hockey Festival, Pakistan finished fifth behind India, Holland, West Germany and

Belgium. This was Pakistan's lowest-ever placing in an international competition. In 1966, Pakistan lost the final of the Asian Games at Bangkok to India, again by one goal. Pakistan did not do well in the London pre-Olympic Hockey Festival in 1967, but had the satisfaction of beating India 1-0. Early in 1968, Pakistan played host to six other nations, not including India, in another pre-Olympic preparatory tournament. This time, Pakistan finished on top with 10 points from six matches and an impressive goal average of 8-0. Later in the year Pakistan regained the Olympic crown at Mexico.

The Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF) is the chief governing body within the country. The two major tournaments held are the National Hockey Championship and the Aga Khan Gold Cup.

Football: Soccer, or association football, is the world's most popular team-sport. Played in every continent and watched by countless millions, its technique has reached a high degree of perfection, particularly in Europe and South America.

Before Independence, the famous Calcutta team, Mohammedan Sporting, included many Muslim players notably from Quetta, Peshawar and Punjab. The Pakistan Football Federation thus had to ban the appearance of Pakistani players for Indian clubs.

Pakistan's best performance in international competition has been to reach the final of the Merdeka Anniversary Celebrations Football Tournament, in Kuala Lumpur, before going down to Indonesia. With other Asian teams more technically skilled, because of intensive coaching and practice, Pakistan has not yet been able to qualify for the Olympic football tournament. The Pakistan Football Federation is trying to improve the standard of the game by employing foreign coaches to hold training seminars and by encouraging foreign teams to tour the country and play against national and local sides.

Lawn Tennis: Pakistan has not made much headway at lawn tennis by world standards, although Haroon Rahim, the national champion, has performed with distinction at some minor tournaments in England. Iftikhar Ahmed, who was Pakistan's first national champion, remained head and shoulders above the rest until he retired in 1959. Women have taken an active interest in the game and Mrs. Taqi Butt and Mrs. Nasir Ahmed have been dominant at different times.

Horseracing: The Jockey Club of Pakistan, which controls horseracing in the three main centres, Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi, is affiliated to the Jockey Club of London, the supreme racing body for this Subcontinent. There is racing under JCP rules throughout the year at Karachi and from January to the end of March at Lahore. The prize money offered has been steadily increasing and the two richest races, the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup and the Pakistan Derby, are each worth over Rs. 80,000 to the winning owner.

Other important races at the two centres include the Pakistan St. Leger, the Prince Aly Khan Gold Cup, the 2,000 guineas, the 1,000 guineas, and

the Queen Elizabeth Gold Cup.

Racehorses have been bred at stud farms at Sahiwal and Renala for many years, for which purpose stallions and brood-mares may be imported. Two of the outstanding horses bred in Pakistan during the last decade or so, are Nero and Montreux, both of which have been retired. The former won the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup twice, while Montreux, the 'Flying Filly', won it once. Montreux also won all the other classic and semi-classic races in which she ran, many of them in record time, and, in 24 starts, lost only four times.

Table Tennis: This is a game where nimbleness of foot and quickness of eye count for more than weight of stroke. China and Japan reign supreme in this field. The standard of the game in Pakistan has not been high, despite numerous tournaments, the most important of which are the National Championships. The Pakistan Table Tennis Federation (PTTF) has sent teams to compete in the World Championships, the Asian Championships and the Peking International Invitation Tournament.

Badminton: This game has long been a speciality of South East Asian nations, notably Malaysia and Indonesia. Facilities for the game are comparatively lacking in Pakistan and interest in it is, therefore, lukewarm. Pakistan has so far failed to get beyond the first round of the Thomas Cup, the major team-badminton trophy.

Squash: Pakistan was placed prominently on the world squash map through the efforts of one remarkable family — the Khans — who dominated the game for a decade. Hashim, Roshan, Azam and Mohibullah, each won the British Open Title in turn, before Abu Taleb took the title back to Egypt in 1963.

Earlier, Taleb's great compatriot, Abdel Karim, had been unbeaten for years until Hashim took the title from him in 1951. Hashim then proceeded to win the title for six consecutive years before his cousin, Roshan, beat him in 1957. From 1958 to 1961 it was the turn of Hashim's younger brother, Azam, who was followed in 1962 by Hashim's nephew, Mohibullah. Taleb then broke the Khan monopoly and recorded a hat-trick of victories before losing in 1966 to the Irishman, Jonah Barrington, the first amateur ever to win the open title.

Coincidentally, the very year Pakistan lost its supremacy in the professional game, Aftab Jawaid kept Pakistan's flag flying by winning the amateur title, which he won again in 1964 and 1965. Since his defeat in 1966, Pakistan has not produced any likely champion of the near future. Jawaid's decline marked the end of a great era in Pakistan squash, but the popularity of squash and the great tradition should breed another race of champions.

Wrestling: Before Independence, the wrestling tradition was concentrated at Lahore, Gujranwala, Sialkot and Amritsar. The first three places are in Pakistan, although the tradition now flourishes mainly at Lahore. Professional wrestling in Pakistan owes its popularity to one illustrious family. The legendary Gama and his brother Imam Bux were great wrestlers in their time. The five sons of the latter, Bholu,

Aslam, Akram, Azam and Goga are the standard bearers of the family name. Bholu, whose claim to be the undefeated champion of the world can only be accepted or disproved if he gets into the ring with a worthy challenger, has not fought in public for many years. His demand, that a prospective challenger must beat his brothers first, has given them the chance to prove that they are invincible against the sort of opposition provided.

In amateur wrestling, Pakistan has won a fair number of medals, including nine gold in the 1962 Asian Games and one bronze in the 1964 Olympics.

Boxing: In Pakistan, boxing is purely an amateur sport. Introduced by the British Army, it was adopted by schools and colleges and, finally, by the Punjab University in 1930. Pakistan has won a few medals in the Asian games and performed creditably against Asian opposition without as yet producing any outstanding champion.

Athletics: The Army has been the chief training ground for athletes in Pakistan. No Pakistani athlete has yet won an Olympic medal, but Ghulam Raziq, in the 110 metres hurdles, and Mohammad Iqbal, in the hammer throw, have won Commonwealth titles. Abdul Khaliq, the sprinter, who was known, for a brief period in the 'fifties', as the fastest runner in Asia, still remains the most admired of Pakistan's athletes.

Volleyball: In Pakistan volleyball is a popular game at all levels, from schools and colleges to the armed forces. The standard is, however, not high enough in spite of the Pakistan Volleyball Federation arranging visits of foreign teams. A victory over Japan, in 1961 at Karachi, has been Pakistan's finest achievement so far because Japan were the Asian champions at that time. In the Asian Games of 1962, Pakistan won the bronze medal.

Basketball: America's most popular sport is catching on in Pakistan, although lack of facilities and training from an early age have prevented the players from rising to a satisfactory level. Although some foreign teams and coaches have visited Pakistan to help improve the general standard of the game, it will take some years before Pakistan is ready for international competition.

Swimming: In Pakistan, swimming is more of a sport for health than for competition. Plans are afoot to build a few Olympic-size pools in order to give young swimmers the chance of developing, but Pakistan is still a long way from having anyone ready for an Olympic event.

On the other hand, Brojen Das and Abdul Malek are two Pakistanis who have crossed the English Channel. Brojen Das has done so no fewer than six times, and he was the first Asian to succeed at his first attempt. He also set up a new record time of 10 hours 35 minutes crossing the Channel from France to England.

Aquatic Sports, such as sailing, yachting, rowing and fishing, tend to be for well-to-do amateurs. Skiing, mountaineering, flying, rifle-shooting and hunting are popular with small groups.

Tourism

BEARING testimony to the attractions of the land, the charm of its people and and the success of efforts to promote tourism, the number of tourists visiting Pakistan has increased rapidly since independence. Tourist spending has risen from Rs. 34.7 million to Rs. 118.7 million during the last 10 years. The notable development of air transport has made travelling easy and thus helped the tourist trade.

In 1965, the Department of Tourism produced a Master Plan for the ensuing 20 years. The plan envisaged a growth that would yield Rs. 130 million in foreign exchange in 1970 and Rs. 560 million in 1985. The Third Five-Year Plan emphasizes the following tourist developments: providing rest houses and improved transportation and recreation facilities, mainly in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, the Sunderbans, Gilgit, Hunza and Chitral; developing mountainering, winter-sports, fishing, hunting and sight-seeing tours, as well as important places of historical, archaeological and other interest; training facilities for hotel staff and tourist promotion work; publicity campaigns organized in collaboration with international travel and tourist organizations; and support for the development of hotels by the private sector. By the end of the Third Plan, it is expected that the number of foreign tourists visiting Pakistan will average 200,000 per year, as against 48,000 in 1960; and that their stay will be doubled from an average of 3 days to six days.

To promote tourism, the department has, since 1961, established offices in the following places: Wing Tourist Offices at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca; Regional and Sub-Regional Offices at Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Murree, Swat, Abbotabad, Gilgit, Chittagong, Kaptai,

Cox's Bazar, Sylhet and Khulna. These offices, along with information centres at major airports and hotels, offer guidance and information to both international and domestic tourists.

Tourist promotion offices abroad, beginning with New York, London, San Francisco and Frankfurt, are to be opened by the department at 12 other metropolitan centres during the current Plan period. The in-service training course, which was introduced in 1964, has now become a regular feature. Trainees are given lectures by specialists on the cultural heritage, history, geography and art of Pakistan, and are then sent out to gain first-hand experience of the country. In this way, they acquire knowledge and information which will be of benefit to the tourist. The department has also sent personnel for training overseas, while some others have received training through the correspondence course on tourism conducted by the International Union of Official Travel Organizations abroad.

Films and Publications: Colour films on Pakistan are produced by the department for exhibition in foreign countries. Two new films, one on Dacca and the other on Lahore, are under production and another is scheduled to be produced this year. The Pakistan Travel Manual, a black-and-white brochure, is a compendium of all essential information for tourists, such as frontier formalities, accommodation, transport and historical sites. Colour brochures, posters and guide maps, which are published in English, French and German, also help to project the image of Pakistan as a country full of tourist attractions.

Facilities for Tourists: The Government have relaxed restrictions and reduced formalities in order to make it easier for tourists to enter, travel within, and leave the country. The Registration of Foreigners' Rules, which came into effect in December 1966, include the following features:

— Doing away with police registration for all foreign tourists.
— Acceptance in part of IUOTO's definition of 'Tourist' as a foreign arrival who stays in a country more than 24 hours and less than three months and who has not come for the purpose of employment (IUOTO accepts this definition for a period not exceeding six months).
— Doing away with police registration for travel from one zone to another and from district to district.
— Abolition of exit permits for foreign tourists.

In addition, restrictions on foreigners to visit the following areas have been eased:

— Peshawar-Torkham road in the Khyber Agency.
— The States of Swat and Chitral.
— The road from Chakdara to Lowari Pass in Dir State and areas lying to the east of the road.
— Protected areas in the Malakand Agency, except the areas known as Kot and Agra, the power station at Dargai, and the Jabban and Canal Head Works.

Tourists are permitted to visit the 'open zone' in the Gilgit and Baltistan Agencies and the restrictions on photography have been removed.

The Master Plan recommended the setting up of a Tourist Development Corporation to implement the commercial ventures suggested in the plan. This would mean that the corporation would construct hotels, motels and rest houses, provide river and road transport, and set up a travel agency, souvenir shops, recreational centres and game sanctuaries. The estimated cost of the project is Rs. 47.5 million.

Some Activities during 1967-68: Pakistan was one of the co-sponsors of the IUOTO resolution on the International Tourist Year 1967. To mark the occasion, a commemorative postal stamp and a pictorial post card were issued. The Department of Tourism launched an intensive publicity campaign and sponsored a special International Tourist Year press supplement.

Lausanne Fair and Prague Exhibition: Pakistan participated successfully at the Lausanne Fair in September 1966, when 500,000 people visited the Tourist Stall,and later participated in the Prague Exhibition by sending large-size photographs of beauty spots and tourist attractions.

National Geographic Magazine: The National Geographic Magazine printed a long, illustrated article on Pakistan, entitled *Pakistan Story*, in the issue of January 1967. At the same time, the National Geographic Society held an exhibition on the antiquities of Pakistan in Washington, D.C.

World Wildlife Conservation Team: The World Wildlife Conservation team, led by Mr. Guy Mountfort, completed its study in both East and West Pakistan in December 1967 after a 39-day stay. The team also shot a film on wildlife.

Mohenjodaro Express and Facilities: At the request of the Department of Tourism, the Larkana Express has been renamed the Mohenjodaro Express. This step has been taken in order to encourage tourist traffic to Mohenjodaro.

At a cost of Rs. 250,000, modern facilities are to be provided for tourists at Mohenjodaro. These include a tourist information centre, a recreation centre, the provision of water and electricity, the air-conditioning of the archaeological museum, and the illumination of the excavations.

Taxila: Due to the steady rise in the number of tourists visiting the ancient monuments at Taxila, the department has drawn up a plan for the construction of a rest house, a projection hall, a cafeteria and a handicraft shop.

New Hotels and Hotel Beds: Falakser Hotel at Kalam, Swat, which consists of 12 bedrooms, was opened in August 1967. Other new hotels expected to open soon include the Elysium at Dacca, the Spinzer and Habib Hotels at Peshawar, and a centrally air-conditioned hotel in Chittagong.

The total number of hotel beds has risen from 2,500 in 1958 to 6,800 in 1967.

Transport: A large number of vehicles for both land and water are now exclusively available for the tourist, and tours of cities and archaeological sites are arranged by the department. The PIA have extended their services to places like Mohenjodaro and Cox's Bazar for the benefit of the tourist.

Folk-dance Troupe: The Department of Tourism has raised and sponsored a folk-dance troupe in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Life-saving Squad: To minimize the chances of accidental drowning at Karachi's popular beaches, a life-saving squad has been set up at Hawkes Bay, where a watch-tower has already been built and a medical centre is to be established. If these measures prove effective, their introduction will be considered at other beaches.

Son-et-Lumiere: A Son-et-Lumiere project for the Lahore Fort has been approved and is likely to be completed before long. A revised script from the creator of the method, Mr. Robert Houdin, has been accepted and revised estimates for the installation of sound and light equipment have been received.

Golf Courses: The development of golf courses throughout the country has been taken in hand. On the advice of experts, considerable improvements have been made on the golf course at Abbotabad, while work continued at remodelling and developing other golf courses in both East and West Pakistan.

Polo in Gilgit: The department organized the Second Northern Area Polo Tournament at Gilgit, the birth-place of the game, in June 1967. Ten thousand Pakistanis and a considerable number of foreigners watched the tournament. The PIA flew special flights from Rawalpindi to Gilgit to help transport the enthusiasts. A specially prepared brochure on the tournament was distributed on the occasion.

Development Programme: The Annual Development Programme of the department envisages an expenditure of Rs. 10.4 million on ventures that are already in progress, on new schemes and on publicity.

PRINCIPAL SITES

Pakistan is a land of contrast and variety. Its two provinces are a thousand miles apart, and both abound in monuments, hill resorts, beaches and historic cities. There are also famous archaeological sites in both East and West Pakistan. Big-game hunting, angling, deep-sea fishing, mountaineering and hiking are available in magnificent settings.

East Pakistan: Dacca, the capital of this province, was founded in 1608 and was the residence of Mughal viceroys of Bengal. The city comprises an area of 28 square miles and has a population of over half a million people. Dacca muslin was once world-famous and the silks and cottons made here were also much in demand.

Among the best-known historical monuments in Dacca are the Lal Bagh Fort, Bibi Pari's Tomb, Bara Katra, Hussaini Dalan, the Star Mosque, the Satgumbad Mosque and the Dhakeswari Temple. Important modern buildings include Curzon Hall, the High Court, Government House, the Agricultural Institute, the Central Secretariat, the Public Library and the Government Arts Institute.

Dacca Museum contains specimens of Mughal arms, jewellery, sculpture, painting, ancient coins, manuscripts, fabrics and other object of art. The Balda Garden is famous for the rare variety of its botanical collection.

Chittagong: Chittagong is a beautiful city. As the principal seaport of the eastern zone of the country, it handles two million tons of cargo annually and is situated on the bank of the river Karnaphuli, surrounded by green hills, rivers and tropical vegetation. It can be reached by rail, road or air. Some of the most important monuments in Chittagong are the Juma Mosque, Anderkilla, Qadam Mubarak Mosque and the Shrine of Sultan Bayazid Bustami.

Kaptai: The completion of the Karnaphuli hydroelectric project has brought prominence to the little village of Kaptai, 35 miles from Chittagong. Kaptai has the largest man-made lake in the Sub-continent (265 square miles) and provides tourists with excellent facilities for cruising by motor launch or speedboat. Angling and fishing stretch from the lake to the Karnaphuli, Kassalong and Maini rivers, while hunting remains a popular pastime. The range offered is vast — from jungle fowl to tiger.

Rangamati: Forty-five miles from Chittagong, also on the river Karnaphuli, lies the town of Rangamati. It is in the district of Chittagong Hill Tracts, where people live a natural life in bamboo huts built on raised bamboo platforms. The forests are dense and full of wild animals. In winter, wild elephants are trapped in an operation known as *Khadda*, which a visitor can witness if he makes advance arrangements with the Tourist Bureau.

Cox's Bazar: Cox's Bazar, at a distance of 94 miles from Chittagong, has an excellent natural beach 75 miles long. It is inhabited by Mogh tribesmen with quaint customs and colourful dress who manufacture cloth and a local type of cigar. There are rest houses and motels for visitors and a hotel has been commissioned recently.

Sunderbans: In the district of Khulna are the world-famous Sunderbans — thick, ever-green forests surrounded by rivers. Hunting is their chief attraction, and they abound in Bengal tigers, pythons, crocodiles and spotted deer. The district can be reached from Dacca by rail and steamer, while the forests are accessible by river craft.

Sylhet: This is the principal tea-growing centre in East Pakistan. Over 100 tea estates are spread over an area of 78,000 acres, while orange and pineapple grow in abundance. Big-game hunting and duck shooting are the main attractions in the nearby forests.

Mahasthan Garh: The site of the earliest known capital of Bengal, Mahasthan Garh lies eight miles north of Bogra railway station. Excavations by the Archaeological Department here have uncovered relics of the Buddhist, Hindu and Muslim periods.

Mainamati: Recent excavations at Mainamati have unearthed remnants of ancient Buddhist culture, complete with shrines, stupas, images, coins, pottery and utensils. The town lies five miles west of Comilla. Sculptured terracota plaques decorating the basement wall of the central shrine of Salban Vihara form a striking group, providing both specimens of the popular folk art of ancient Bengal and an interesting picture of the social, cultural and religious life there more than a thousand years ago.

Paharpur: Paharpur, in the district of Rajshahi, boasts of the finest Buddhist monastery south of the Himalayas. It is said to be the biggest in Asia. Buddha is said to have rested at the site once, which makes Paharpur a place of special religious significance. The monastery is distinguished by its unique cruciform style of architecture.

West Pakistan: Karachi is the biggest and most important city in West Pakistan. Though it is no longer the country's capital, it continues to be a cosmopolitan centre where business, commerce and industry flourish. It has one of the finest natural harbours in the Indo-Pakistan Sub-continent and offers excellent fishing off the coast. A comparatively new city with little of ancient historic interest, Karachi nevertheless offers the tourist a rich selection of hand-made products from all over the country, frequent exhibitions of its fine arts, the National Museum, the Zoological Gardens and a fascinating aquarium at Clifton.

Bhambhore: An archaeological site 40 miles north-east of Karachi, Bhambhore is thought by some scholars to be the ancient Daibul, where the Arab general, Mohammad-bin-Qasim, landed in 711-12 A.D.

Thatta: The city is situated 63 miles north of Karachi and was the capital of the province of Sind for nearly three centuries, under the Mughals (1475-1737). Two miles north-west of Thatta is Makli Hill, the quiet city of one million graves spread over six square miles. The tombs and graves offer fine specimens of architecture, stone-carving and coloured-tiling. With partridge, quail, duck and snipe in abundance, shooting enthusiasts are drawn to the surroundings of Thatta and, in particular, Kalri lake, 11 miles north of Thatta, offers facilities for shooting, as well as for angling and speed-boating.

Hyderabad: Hyderabad was the capital of Sind during the latter half of the eighteenth and the early nineteenth centuries. It is situated 126 miles north-east of Karachi and possesses some historical ruins and monuments. The construction of the Ghulam Mohammad Barrage across the river Indus was a notable engineering feat, which has helped to make the land green and fertile through a network of canals.

Sukkur: Sukkur is situated on the right bank of the river Indus and lies 212 miles north-east of Hyderabad. The famous Sukkur Barrage (originally known as the Lloyd Barrage and Canals Construction) is one of the largest irrigation projects of its kind in the world. It irrigates seven million acres of land by means of seven canals drawing 46,617 cusecs of water and comprising 16,474-mile long channels. One of its canals is wider and longer than either the Suez or the Panama Canal.

Mohenjodaro: The most famous archaeological site in Pakistan, Mohenjodaro, 412 miles from Karachi and 80 miles south-west of Sukkur, contains the remnants of the 5,000-year-old Indus Valley Civilization. The Great Bath, the Great Granary, the Museum and the unique drainage system are remarkable evidence of the progress made in one of the earliest human civilizations known. At Harappa, near Sahiwal, is a similar site, belonging to the same civilization.

Quetta and Ziarat: Quetta is a healthy hill station with a cold winter but a pleasant summer. It is situated 4,590 feet above sea level and has many orchards. Among modern amenities are a good hotel, a club and a beautiful golf course.

Ziarat, which is 62 miles from Quetta, is 8,000 feet above sea level.

Lahore: This is the capital of West Pakistan as well as the cultural capital of the province. Over 800 miles north-east of Karachi, it is only two hours away by air. An ancient city full of gardens and historical buildings, Lahore offers wonderful examples of Indo-Muslim architecture: the Badshahi Mosque of the Emperor Aurangzeb, Shalimar Gardens built by Shah Jahan, Jehangir's Mausoleum, and the Royal Fort of Akbar with its amazing Hall of Mirrors. The Jinnah Gardens is one of the finest parks in Asia. Lahore also holds the National Horse Show, an annual spring event which includes equestrian sports, folk-dance, music, parades and tattoos. The climate of Lahore is dry with hot summers and cool winters.

Rawalpindi: The interim capital of Pakistan, Rawalpindi is 171 miles north-west of Lahore. It is rapidly developing from a small town to a city with good roads, decorative trees, playgrounds for children and a large park called the Ayub National Park. Good hotels and restaurants and a much-frequented private club are other attractions. From Rawalpindi, most of the pleasant hill resorts in the area, such as Murree, Nathiagali, Ayubia, Abbotabad, Swat, and Kaghan, are easily accessible. The climate is similar to that of Lahore, being a little colder in winter, but not so warm in the summer.

Islamabad: Seven miles north-east of Rawalpindi is the new capital of Pakistan, Islamabad. Although Islamabad is still under construction, many ministries and Government departments have been shifted there. Government buildings, parks, boulevards, shopping centres and an industrial zone are all either under construction or already completed.

Taxila: Another famous archaeological site is Taxila, 189 miles from Lahore and 20 miles from Rawalpindi on the road to Peshawar. It broadly represents one thousand years of history, divided more or less equally by the birth of Christ. It has remains of the Achamenians, Mauryans, Indo-Greeks, Scythians, Parthians and Kushans and is important as a centre of Gandhara culture. It is the place where Asoka built the greatest Buddhist University of the Sub-continent some two centuries before the birth of Christ.

Murree and the Galis: Murree is probably the most popular summer resort in Pakistan. It is situated at an altitude of 7,527 feet above sea level and is about 40 miles from Rawalpindi. Murree offers the visitor good hotels, skating rinks and lovely walks amidst surroundings of giant pine trees. The galis are little hill stations easily reached by car from Murree. Ayubia, which consists of three galis, is one hour's drive. It has beautiful wooded hills and a refreshing climate. Nathiagali and Abbotabad are two other popular hill stations in the same area.

Kaghan Valley: The valley of Kaghan is 95 miles long and attains a height of 13,589 feet. It offers, apart from a fine healthy climate, memorable landscape and enjoyable trout fishing.

Swat Valley: The valley of Swat is remarkably beautiful. Like a miniature Switzerland, it is full of green valleys, snow-capped mountains, flower-covered slopes, rivers, lakes and plentiful orchards. Udayana, the garden of the ancient Hindu epic, is a landmark. It is said that 1,400 Buddhist monasteries existed here centuries ago, and it was here that Alexander won major battles before coming down to the plains.

Peshawar: Peshawar, which lies 275 miles north-west of Lahore and 1,081 miles from Karachi, is a city with a rich historical background. It used to be one of the important crossroads of Central Asia and even now its bazars recall ancient times. Peshawar is famous for its local handicrafts and its Museum houses specimens of Romano-Buddhist sculpture and other antiquities. The nearby Kohat Pass is famous for its village gun factories.

Khyber Pass: The Khyber Pass stretches from a point 11 miles from Peshawar to the border with Afghanistan at Torkham, 24 miles further. It was the route used by all invaders who entered the Sub-continent. Persians, Greeks, Arabs, Turks, Mughals and Durranis, one by one, marched down the Pass.

Landi Kotal, 29 miles from Peshawar, is a busy shopping centre and deservedly popular with visitors. A bus service to Torkham every Sunday provides a one-day guided tour of the Khyber Pass. It is also possible to hire a taxi for the round trip.

Gilgit: Gilgit, like Swat, is a beneficiary of nature's bounty. Mountains, valleys and glaciers abound and calm lakes give an aura of unearthly peace. There are several mountain peaks over 19,000 feet high, and one, K-2, at 28,250 feet, is the highest mountain peak in the world after Mount Everest.

By air from Rawalpindi to Gilgit, the plane flies over the Kunhar river, a breathtaking spectacle. The legendary lake of Saiful-Muluk is among the most beautiful in the world and there are other lovely lakes, notably the Satpara and the Kachura, in Skardu. Gilgit and Skardu are both accessible by air and transport is available at the rest houses.

A Short Selected Bibliography

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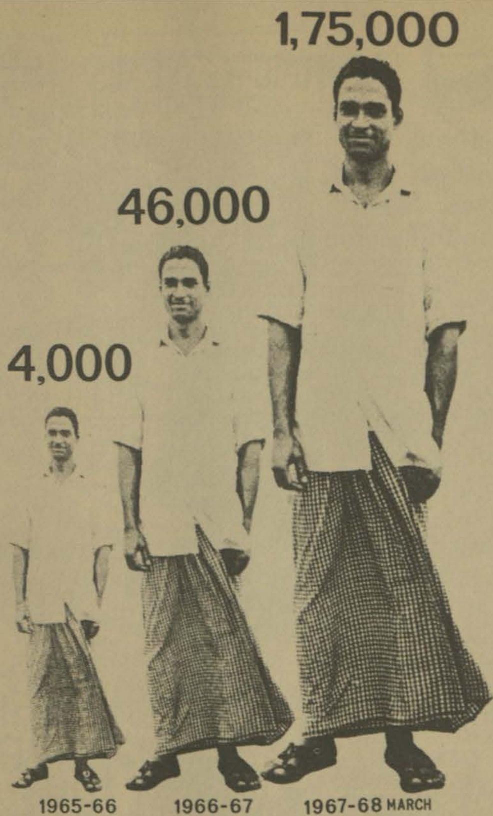
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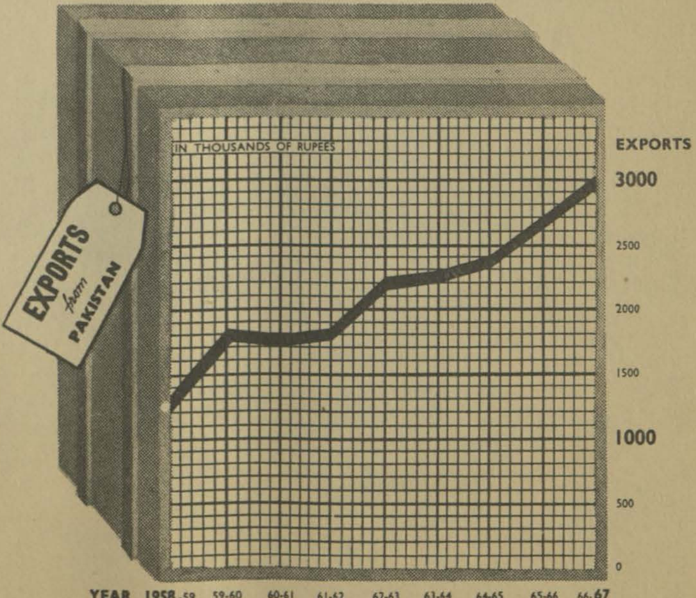


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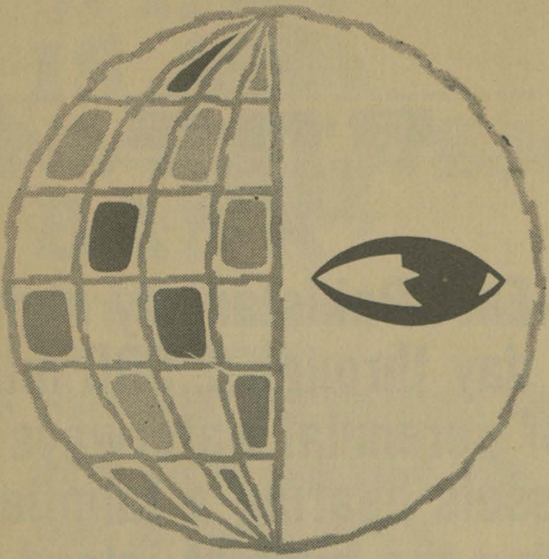


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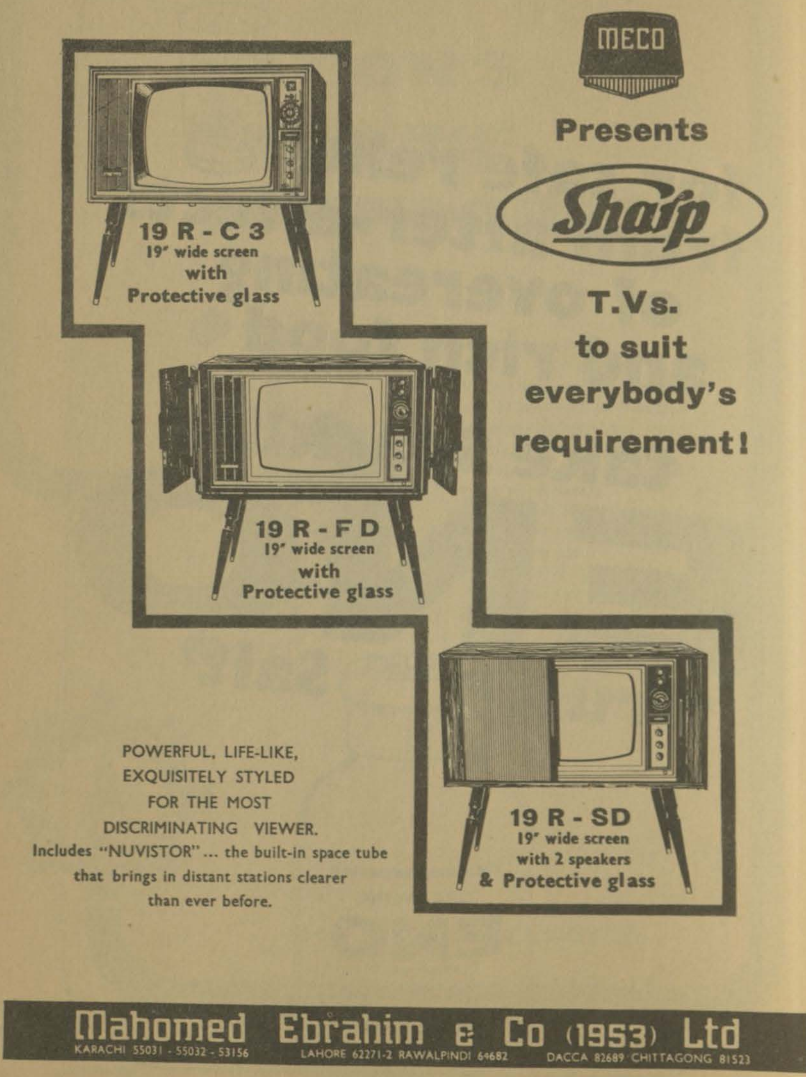
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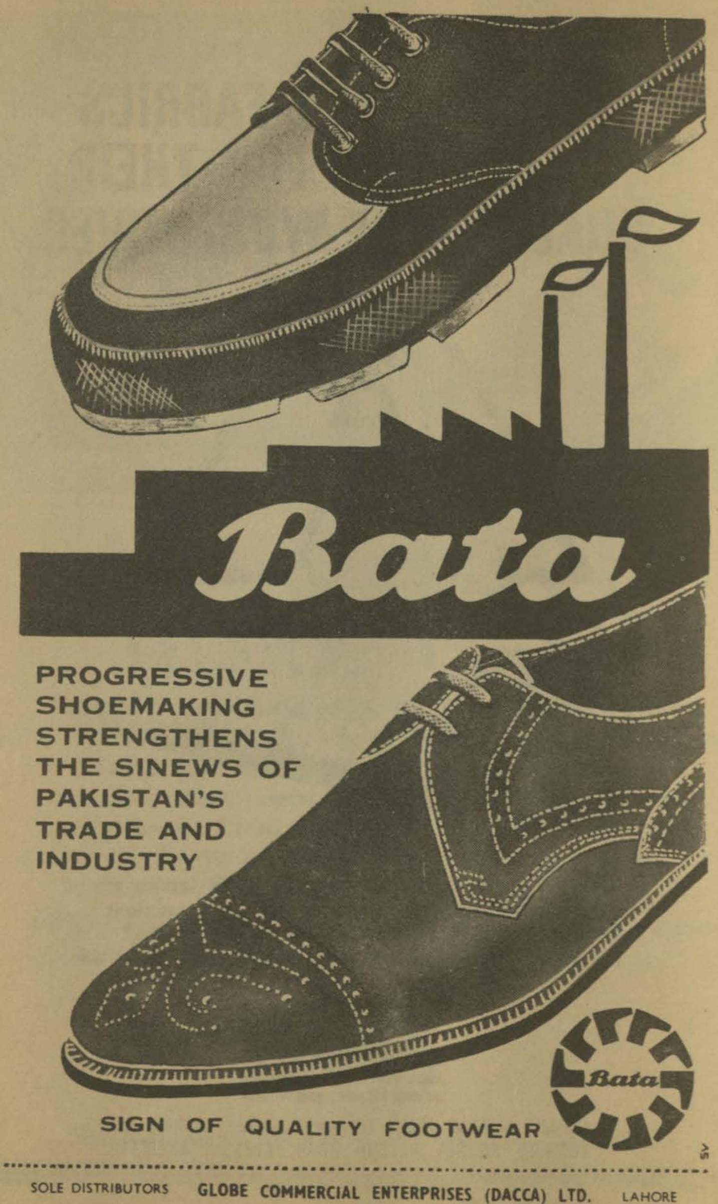

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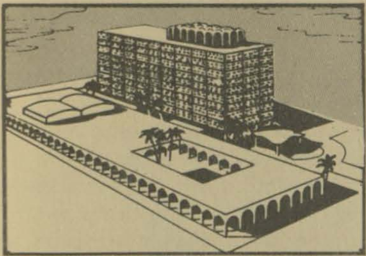

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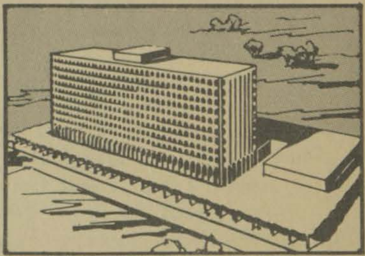

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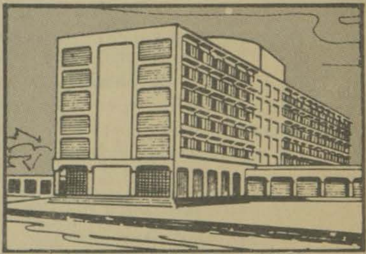
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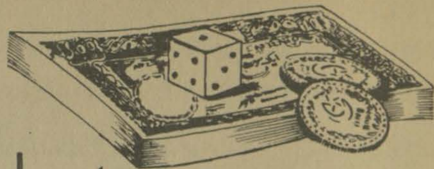
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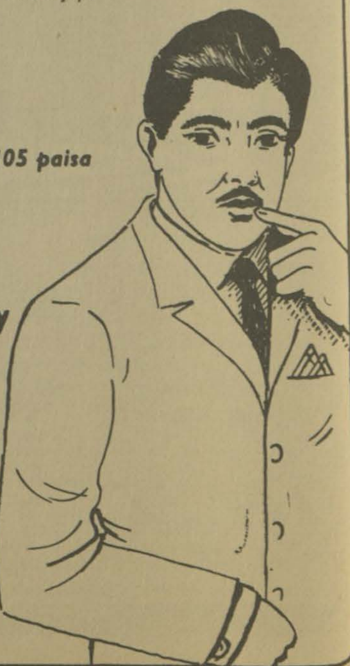
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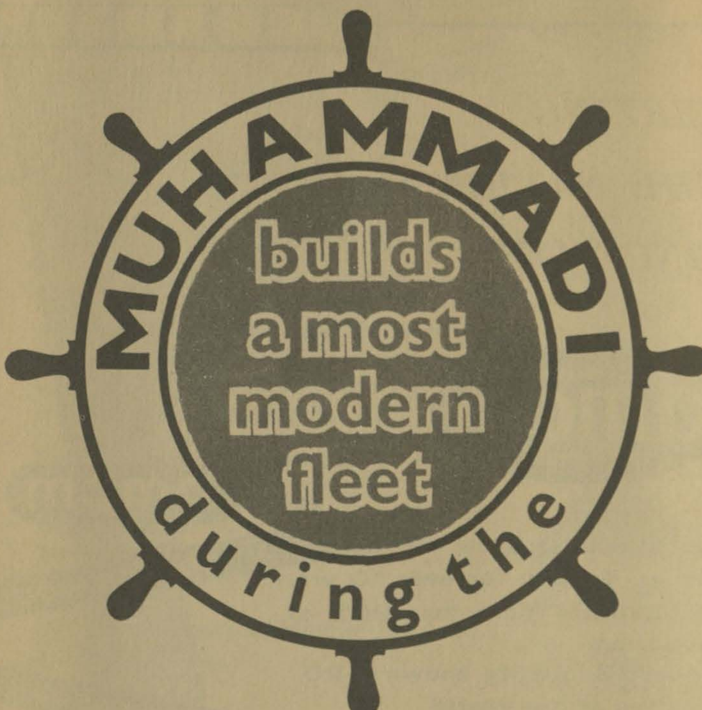
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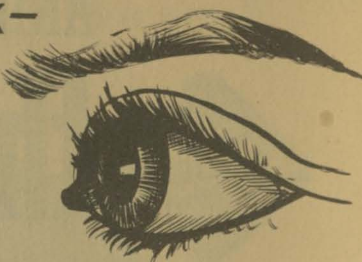

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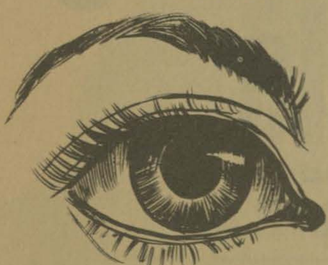

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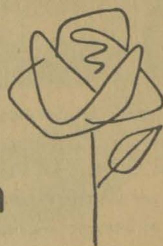
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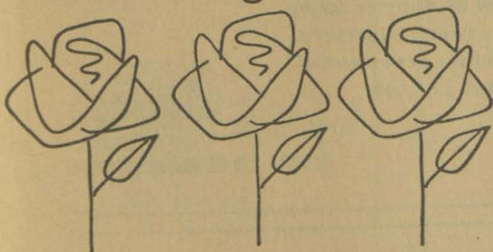
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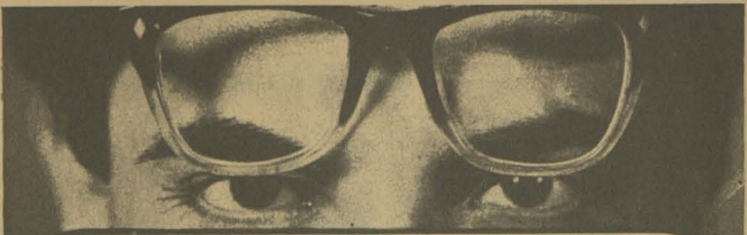
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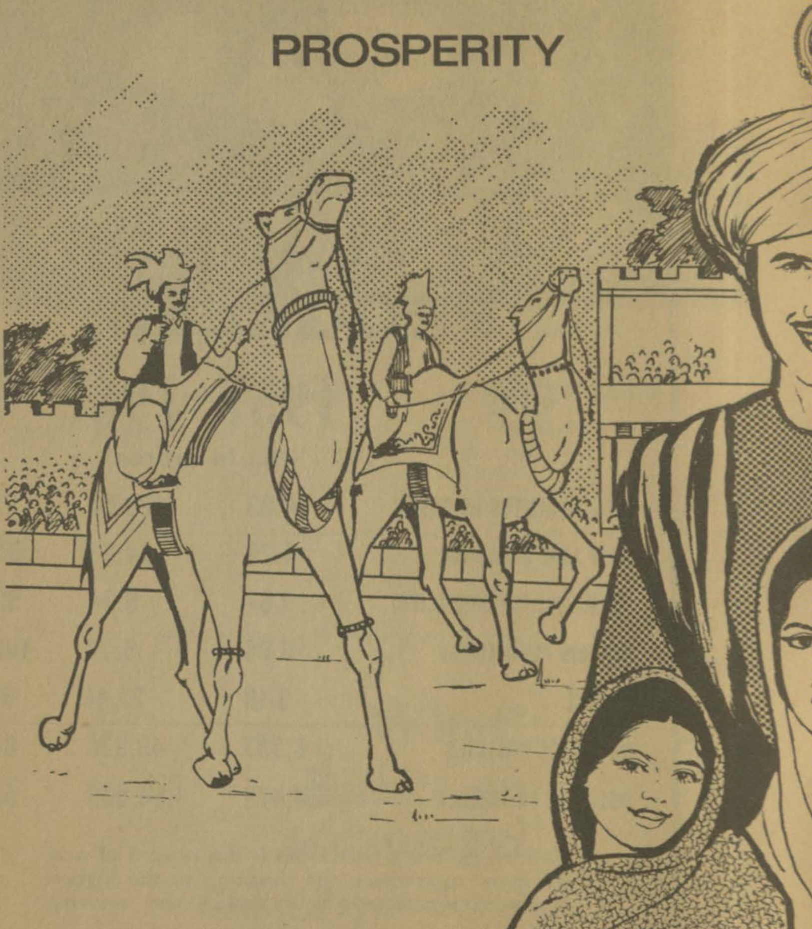








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